

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

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CIVIL SERVICE ASSEMBLY OF THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA ORGANIZATION

THE Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada is an association of public agencies, officials, and private citizens engaged or interested in public personnel administration. The constituent public agencies of the Assembly are civil service commissions, boards, or personnel offices serving an entire governmental jurisdiction, and personnel offices serving a particular governmental department or division. They serve national, state, and local governments of the United States, and Dominion, provincial, and local areas in Canada. The Assembly was organized in 1906 by officials and others actually engaged in civil service and other public personnel activities in order to provide mutual help in meeting common problems and to improve public personnel administration.

The Assembly is a non-profit organization. Funds for its support are obtained from membership fees, special gifts or grants, and the sale of published material.

Annual and regional meetings. The purposes of the Assembly are accomplished through annual and regional meetings, the work of the Assembly's Executive Council, and the activities of its Headquarters Office. The Assembly holds an annual meeting at which are discussed the administrative, technical, and other practical problems faced by public personnel agencies, and the manner in which such problems are being met in various jurisdictions. Reports are made by standing and special technical committees upon such problems as personnel rules and regulations, position classification and pay plans, recruitment and examination methods, employee training, service ratings, personnel reports and statistics, and retirement plans.

The Assembly is divided into three regional conferences, each of which meets once a year in addition to the regular annual meeting of the Assembly. The entire field of public personnel administration is discussed at regional meetings.

Executive Council. Between annual meetings, the business of the Assembly is conducted by an Executive Council consisting of the President of the Assembly and six members elected for overlapping terms.

Headquarters Office. The Assembly has established a Headquarters Office under the supervision of a Director selected by the Executive Council. This Headquarters Office is located at 1313 East Sixtieth Street, Chicago, Illinois.

Local Groups. The Executive Council is authorized to recognize groups, organizations, or asso-

ciations of persons interested in the improvement of standards and practices in public personnel administration and cooperating with the Assembly in advancing such standards and practices.

SERVICES

THE Headquarters Office is actively engaged in carrying forward the general purposes and program of the Assembly as outlined in previous paragraphs. It serves as a clearing house for existing information about public personnel matters. Current data pertaining to personnel laws, regulations, procedures, practices, tests, forms, records, costs, and activities of public personnel agencies are brought together, organized, and, so far as possible, made available upon request to members and others genuinely interested in the development and extension of the merit system and the improvement of public personnel administration. An advisory and consulting service is rendered to members of the Assembly and other agencies interested in public personnel matters. Technical assistance is given in organizing and developing public personnel agencies and policies. Aid is given in preparing legislation and appropriate rules, regulations, forms, and procedures. Tests used by member agencies are gathered and made available, upon approval of the agencies involved, to active agency members desiring such material. The Headquarters Office attempts to coordinate the research of the Assembly's members and the work being carried on in colleges and universities by their staffs and students.

The Assembly publishes a monthly NEWS LETTER reporting current developments and happenings in the field, and a quarterly journal, PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW, which deals with the technical and administrative aspects of public personnel administration. From time to time special pamphlets or reports are issued on the manner in which major personnel problems are being met in various governmental jurisdictions or on some general aspect of personnel administration.

MEMBERSHIP

BOTH organizations and individuals may become members of the Assembly. There are five classes of membership: active agency, active individual, affiliate agency, affiliate individual, and student.

For further information about the work and program of the Assembly, write the Assembly's Headquarters Office in Chicago.

Personnel Administration in the Seventh Decade

LEONARD D. WHITE

THE FIRST SIXTY YEARS

THE end of one decade and the opening of another is always a convenient occasion to review the record. The decade which began with the depression and ended with the outbreak of the second Great War has been pregnant with consequences for the United States, whose economy and civil administration were shaken by events the ramifications of which we see only dimly as the new decade opens. Of all the major institutions of government, the administrative arm has responded most rapidly and most effectively to current exigencies. Our legislative system and our judicial system have hardly altered in the midst of a constitutional structure which has stood the strain well; but public policy and public administration have been profoundly changed.

A discussion of the present position of the American public service will not permit examination of these major trends. It must suffice to state that they have placed new responsibilities on the public service and have made imperative the more complete realization of the improvements in the public service which the merit system and the techniques of personnel administration provide.

EACH decade of the merit system has been marked by its special quality, and no doubt the seventh decade into which we now advance will make its special contribution. The first decade, 1880-1890, was occupied with a desperate struggle for existence. The outcome was not assured, indeed,

until the second ten years had run their course, and was finally made clear in no small measure due to the dynamic power of Civil Service Commissioner Theodore Roosevelt (1889-1895). The second decade was essentially one of deadlock; the politicians could not destroy the new plan, nor could the reformers gain further ground.

The third decade (1900-1910), filled with the outcries of the muckrakers and stirred by Lincoln Steffens, the elder La Follette, Charles Beard and others, saw the formal conquest of the cities by the merit system. Despite local losses and too frequent lowering of standards, the cities have remained within the area of merit, strongly supported by nearly five hundred city manager towns which have the substance, although not always the form of civil service.

The fourth decade began in peace and marched into war. Crises, whether military or economic, speed up normal rates of change. By the end of the decade plans had been laid in Washington for the introduction of a duties classification, for the general extension of the merit system (Wilson had already dealt with the postmasters), and for the broad improvement of civil service practice. Return to normalcy delayed these progressive innovations.

During the fifth decade was set one of the principal milestones within the whole history of the public service—the arrival of the technicians. Experts in test construction, experts in duties classification, experts in formal rating schemes, experts in actuarial science began to make their significant con-

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tribution to a merit system which was still basically conducted by rule of thumb, by trial and error.

The sixth decade, just closed, was dominated by the effort at broad reconstruction to provide a career service on a more adequate basis, symbolized by the report of the Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel. Implicit in this objective is the realization that the problems of government and administration which the American people are seeking to solve require superior competence, impartiality, and public confidence (not merely party confidence) in the public service in a measure hitherto inadequately achieved.

WHAT may we expect to be the major theme of the seventh decade? Certainly continued improvement of method by the technicians; probably the major conquest of the states under the steady pressure from the federal government, the National Civil Service Reform League, the National League of Women Voters, the United States Junior Chamber of Commerce (and hopefully their seniors), and, by no means least, the organized employees of the states themselves; the further extension of the merit system in the national and municipal governments; and the more firm establishment of public service careers. The counties may not yet be counted with certainty.

But the principal new task of civil service statesmanship will be the coordination of the public service systems of the federal, state and local governments. Here and there initial stages have already been explored. The state and local governments of California have learned how to hold examinations in concert; several states have organized single retirement systems for state and local government employees; the federal government, especially under the authority of the 1939 amendments to the Social Security Act, has accepted a responsibility to coordinate federal and state public employment standards within certain areas. These are disconnected pieces of a larger pattern of

coordination, the full nature of which we do not yet comprehend, but which this decade will certainly explore.

A CHANGING PHILOSOPHY

THE public service of the federal government and those of the original thirteen states have now a continuous history of over 150 years; in other states the period tapers off to the latest state service to be established, that of Oklahoma in 1907, now only about thirty years of age. The older federal and, with exceptions, state services began on the basis of a genuine merit system. This soon gave way in the states, and in 1829 broke down in the federal government. Patronage and personal connection became almost the exclusive means of entering the public service—on a precarious and temporary footing.

At the vantage point of 1940, it is useful to observe the changing philosophy which has dominated the persistent demand for a public service based on the merit system. To Carl Schurz, Dorman B. Eaton, George William Curtis, William Dudley Foulke, Samuel H. Ordway, Sr., and other members of the valiant band of early civil service reformers, the justification of the merit system was put in terms of purifying democracy. Patronage to them was nothing less than mass bribery of the electors, the existence of which contaminated the very source of democratic government—the free expression of popular will at the polls.

This philosophy was supplemented and on the whole obscured by the rise of the doctrine of efficiency and economy, characteristic of the American approach to governmental problems since 1910. This outlook reigned without challenge throughout the restoration of normalcy until 1930.

SINCE the startling collapse of democracy as a world form of state organization which began in 1918 and which reached a climax in 1933, and since the internal effects of depression within the United States, the theoretical justification of a non-partisan,

competent and trustworthy public service has taken a more fundamental course. It is now evident that a democracy must be able to deal effectively with the collective problems of its citizens in the world competition for survival which has been raging in ever sharper form since the World War of 1914-1918. It is also evident that the governmental institutions of a democracy must themselves be organized on the democratic principle of equal opportunity for participation of all qualified citizens, irrespective of circumstances of geographical residence, race, sex, religion, education, personal acquaintance, fraternal affiliation, party belief, or economic status.

To the extent that Americans cherish the democratic ideal, they have an especial obligation to make democratic practice approximate that ideal. If anywhere democracy can be expected to display its values, it is here. If anywhere the offensive brutality of authoritarian state organization can be safely avoided, it is here. If anywhere a public service ought to be constructed on a democratic, but nevertheless competent, responsible and impartial basis, it is here.

The procedures which civil service commissions and personnel directors apply in recruiting and managing the vast public services of the country find their inner significance and their underlying importance only in this context. The improvements of the last two decades, partly technical and partly the redefinition of broad purpose (career system), are conspicuous. In themselves they give assurance that a competent and democratic public service can be created, increasingly equal to its tasks.

IN TOO large a section of the public service, however, the philosophy of responsibility of the public service to the political party still prevails. The party is an essential element of a genuine democracy; but it is not essential to party that it should control appointments to the middle and lower brackets of the public service—nor to most of the positions in the higher brackets.

Party monopoly of public employment is less an expression of democracy, in the sense of equal opportunity, than it is of feudalism. Party selection in fact spells an arbitrary exclusion of a large minority (at times a majority) who do not profess an active, even ardent affiliation with the dominant political faction. The first prerequisite to public employment becomes in effect a certificate of partisan acceptability from the ward leader or the county chairman. Irrespective of the superior competence, the special training, the unchallenged impartiality of others, they are not considered by those who have the power to appoint.

This exclusion is defensible in higher policy forming posts; it is indefensible and a mockery of equality of opportunity for all other posts. It weakens democracy not only by arbitrary exclusion, but also by guaranteeing as a rule that lessons once learned by partisans must be learned again by other partisans at the next turn of the political tide. Feudal ties which bind ward heeler to ward leader and ward leader to a city machine are not the foundation on which an effective or a genuine democracy or a tolerable bureaucracy can permanently endure. The implicit danger becomes explicit as the cleavages in society and in politics deepen.

The public service is the people's service, not the politicians'. The system of open competitive examinations, appointment in order of impartially tested merit, and management designed to develop and use the capacities of every employee to the utmost, under public responsibility, is close to the ideal of the administrative system of a democratic state. Even more significantly than in the claims of administration to be competent it is in this ideal that lies the justification for a public service based on the merit system; and it is this theme of which much will be heard in the seventh decade.

THE NEW SETTING

THE setting of public personnel management in the next decade is thus deeply affected by the world crisis in democratic

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institutions, to the stability and continuance of which modern personnel work makes an important contribution. It is also influenced by the large scale operations which must now be pushed forward, by the concern of the state with areas of human conduct which were either formerly untouched by government or were the concern of local governments only, and by the consequent necessity for recognized impartiality between contending groups whose interests require adjustment to each other in the light of a public interest itself often obscure. These circumstances deserve examination.

ALEXANDER HAMILTON was Secretary of the Treasury from 1789 to 1795. He organized the fiscal system of the new national government, assumed the debts of the states, set forth a program of protection for American manufactures, and collected a revenue which quickly assured the stability and solvency of the infant Republic. The staff of the central Treasury department, enumerated in the first request for funds (1790), numbered thirty-nine, including the Secretary of the Treasury and all employees down to the "messenger and office keeper." Only one salary, other than the Secretary's, exceeded \$2,000 per annum; one clerk at \$500 per annum was sufficient to keep "the accounts of interest arising on the domestic debt."

On June 30, 1939 the Treasury employed 77,128 employees, of whom 26,230 were stationed in Washington, while the remainder were scattered over a continent. In the fiscal year ending June 30, 1939, the Treasury collected revenue exceeding \$5,000,000,000, a sum beyond the wildest dreams of Alexander Hamilton, prophet of national expansion though he was.

For five years the Treasury has been permitted by Congress to retain the custody of a stabilization fund of two billion dollars, and to use this vast sum with very wide discretion. Trust funds reserved for the future security of scores of millions of citizens, already (1939) amounting to 2.46 billions

and destined to increase to much greater proportions, were held by the Treasury and managed as one of many equally stupendous responsibilities. The scale of operations in terms of money and power is unparalleled in American history—power to affect the prosperity of distant nations as well as the happiness of American citizens. That such a trust is accepted without the slightest evidence of concern is a symbol of confidence in the public service of the national government which comes only from the highest standards of integrity and competence—back of which lies an examination system and a permanent public service.

This is a single example of large scale management which is duplicated in the Post Office, in the Federal Security Agency, and in the Department of Agriculture, and which is exemplified in the far flung operations of such agencies as the Department of Justice, the Department of the Interior, the Interstate Commerce Commission, and the United States Civil Service Commission. The latter was recently required to give a single examination to which over 200,000 persons requested admission—and every competitor found an examination paper awaiting him at the right moment at the proper place, from Portland, Maine, to San Diego, California.

THE scale of operations is complicated year after year by the increasing coordination of federal, state, and city administration. A whole new set of perplexing adjustments is evolving, full of possibilities for misunderstanding and friction, but vital as the only observable substitute for the rapid expansion of federal authority far beyond the limits which are now in effect.

To imagine that these problems of large scale management and coordination are simple is to delude one's self. They are enormously difficult, and they can be resolved only by administrative capacity of the highest order. It is no accident that personnel agencies everywhere are more deeply concerned than ever before in the search

for genuine administrative talent, and in experimentation with tools of analysis which will permit the early discovery of management aptitude.

THROUGHOUT the early history of the United States, government remained on the side-lines in the struggle between employers and employees, maintaining public order but resolutely avoiding even the modest offer of its services to ameliorate the conditions of economic struggle. These problems of community life finally could be ignored no longer, and step by step, local, state and eventually the national government have intervened. Each stage of intervention of public authority was bitterly disputed, even such an innovation as the establishment of workmen's compensation for industrial accidents.

New frontiers in this area, now hotly contested, have been opened in recent years. Governmental support for the right of collective bargaining, administrative orders to cease and desist employment practices specified by law as illegal, have unleashed new floods of controversy and debate in the midst of which public officials seek to interpret and apply standards whose clarity is achieved only in the process of enforcement.

The regulation of wages and hours, the supervision of the sale of securities, the management of the production of basic agricultural products, the search for a formula to conserve the nation's oil resources, the mitigation of the distress induced by drought and the mass migration of population, the search for revenues adequate to support government in its effort to aid citizens in these emerging areas while at the same time keeping millions from hunger and want—these are problems before which a public service organized on the rural frontier philosophy of Jackson would be helpless. They are problems which require a strong government—strong in the integrity, in the competence, and in the vision of its public service as well as in its political leadership.

IT FOLLOWS from these considerations that the public service must remain impartial as between the contending groups which seek the power of the state to improve their position or to weaken the position of their antagonists. In the enforcement of the pure food acts, an inspector is to be guided by the law and the regulations, not by the preferences of a canner. In the enforcement of the safety provisions of a factory act, the inspector is to follow a uniform rule as between factories, and a reasonable rule in the light of the purpose to be sought and the state of the mechanical arts, not the convenience of the factory owner or the punitive claims of a group of workers. In organizing examinations, a civil service commission can neither limit competition to one or a very few known individuals (by excessive prerequisites) nor need it permit any citizen over twenty-one to take pencil in hand irrespective of fitness.

Public officials, as E. P. Herring has so admirably demonstrated, serve the public interest, not special or personal interests. In an increasingly complicated social organization, the public interest often is difficult to isolate and define—difficult for legislators as well as for administrators to whom the perplexities are bequeathed in eloquent but vague requirements of law. Hard though the search may be, the chances of success are improved if public servants owe primary loyalty to the administrative organization of which they are a part, rather than to a political organization, an economic group, a fraternal order, or a geographical section.

These considerations have less meaning in the municipal affairs of the smaller cities, and in the municipal and state departments and agencies which are engaged in providing service to citizens. In these branches, the prime considerations are character, technical and managerial skill, stability of employment, and good working conditions.

IN ANOTHER place, T. V. Smith and I recorded our conviction of the essential qualities of the public service of the future

in words which are appropriate here. "The civil service is a prime example of large-scale management and consequently requires superior managerial ability; it is designed to prevent and to facilitate, not merely to forbid or command, and therefore must be socially intelligent and alert; it is increasingly in need of scientists, professional men, and technicians, and must therefore be specially trained; it must use all sorts of mechanical equipment and must therefore be skilled; it has power in increasing measure over persons and groups and must therefore have the sense of restraint which derives from responsibility; it has become involved in some of the major conflicts of modern society and must therefore be impartial; it manages enterprises the success or failure of which is fraught with vast social consequences and it must therefore be strong and free to seek the ends established by law."¹

Personnel technicians in their tasks of examination and classification, the management of rating systems and assistance in promotions cannot overlook these considerations as one particular case follows another across their desks. Even more the responsibilities of commissioners, which transcend those of the technicians, must be discharged in the light of these broader matters. For the commissioners guide policy and in so doing may go far to realize the great ends toward which central personnel management is dedicated. The needs of the modern state require that they aspire to nothing less.

LINES OF PROGRESS

IN THE light of these considerations we may examine more closely some of the probable tasks of the seventh decade of central personnel management. Opinions will differ widely as to the relative importance of different emerging trends, and there may well be difference of opinion concerning the probability of future evolution. Reading the immediate future in the light of the re-

¹Leonard D. White and T. V. Smith, *Politics and Public Service*, pp. 119-20 (1939).

cent past, we may venture to predict some lines of progress, remembering always that loss of ground instead of gain is ever a contingent possibility.

The next ten years will permit the better establishment of the broad concept of the career service which was admirably formulated by the Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel. The principal obstacles in 1940 are the local residence requirements in states and their subdivisions and political prerequisites at all levels of government. Both handicaps are slowly yielding. Another ten years may reduce them substantially, especially if economic conditions improve. Career service implies the steady extension of facilities for in-service training, the evolution of which was so marked a feature of the last decade. It suggests also a willingness in the larger jurisdictions at least to recruit annually a number of non-vocationally trained but well educated men and women of superior mental ability who may supplement both the vocational and the professional elements within the public service. It implies less emphasis on seniority in promotions to the higher brackets. It clearly involves long-range planning to develop to the highest point of professional and administrative competence the men and women, now in the service, who ten or twenty years hence will be in the most responsible positions.

A second important task of the next decade is one which lies partly outside and partly within the realm of civil service groups as such, although the integrity and competence of their work will count heavily in its achievement. This is the never-ending job of building stronger public support for a well-ordered and effective public service. More legislation is needed, especially in the states and counties; this will come when public demand for it is beyond doubt. Better safeguards against the subtle undermining of established merit systems are needed; too often they deteriorate over the years until they are a mere facade of merit behind which the old feudal game of personal favor goes

on. More ample funds are needed to permit the proper performance of the most elementary civil service duties, to say nothing of the refinements which are known to the profession and whose value has been tested in progressive jurisdictions.

A third task concerning which there may be difference of opinion is the closer integration of personnel work with general administration. The first half century of civil service history was dominated by the police concept, the idea that it was the primary duty of an independent, bi-partisan civil service commission to defeat the partisan efforts of mayors and governors and presidents and politicians generally. This was inevitably—and rightly—a matter of primary concern in the early days of civil service reform, and is rightly a matter of deep concern in any jurisdiction in which the merit system is still not well-established.

Elsewhere this somewhat antagonistic concept has outlived its usefulness, and is steadily being replaced by the view that it is the primary duty of a central personnel agency to serve, not to police the operating agencies. This restores the centre of gravity where it belongs, in the operating agencies, and recognizes the fact that personnel work, central purchasing, keeping of accounts, and budgeting, are all auxiliary agencies designed to facilitate the major work of government. The proposed system of personnel organization now under discussion for the state of Virginia represents the boldest and most complete acceptance of a new philosophy, which, it must be added, presupposes well-established high standards of official behavior. The Virginia plan could hardly be expected to produce helpful results everywhere.

TECHNICAL improvements in personnel administration will probably be abundant. Among them we may suggest that by 1950 the mechanization of civil service procedures will have been substantially completed, especially in the rating of short answer questions and in the record systems.

Thus may be ended once and for all a heavy handicap to good personnel work—the interminable delay from which nearly every civil service commission suffers. Thus also may be laid the mechanical foundation for ending the existing chaotic and inexcusable disorder in the reporting and statistical systems of public personnel offices considered as a whole. Civil service statistics are among the worst of any official statistics produced in the United States.

Selective recruiting will supplement mass recruiting during the next ten years, and may eventually push mass recruiting into a secondary position. More and more the slogan, "only the best shall serve the state," will become generally accepted. The corollary is that commissions must actively search for the best, and must not be content merely with those who appear.

By 1950 the personnel agencies ought to have an extensive, central collection of analyzed test items for all common occupational groups. These will have been formulated by technicians in every part of the country, will have been tested experimentally and practically, and will be available for use of other agencies upon request. Complete records of the behavior of each item will be maintained, so that examination experts may know with reasonable certainty the selective value of their tests. Important beginnings have already been made in a number of commissions, but the central depository remains to be achieved.

Transfer opportunities within any individual jurisdiction will doubtless be improved, but the severe limitations inherent in specialization ought not to be overlooked. The effects of specialization pile up with continued service, and transfer to related or different lines of work becomes progressively difficult. Transfer from one jurisdiction to another may become more feasible. One aspect, that is the movement of city and state personnel to the federal government, has already become a matter of comment. It may progressively weaken state and local administration, but not inevitably. Its volume may,

alternatively, be severely reduced if public retirement systems are widely inaugurated which fail to permit the transfer of pension accruals. The anticipated spread of public retirement plans, a necessary forward step, need not curtail freedom of movement if they are properly constructed, but will unless care is taken.

IN THE classification field, it is permissible to hope that initial steps may be taken in the next decade to formulate standard class specifications for a small but unknown number of positions common to most jurisdictions. In the professional fields this task will involve closest cooperation with the professional groups; in the skilled trades, with the appropriate crafts. The classification experts share with civil service statisticians the melancholy satisfaction of pursuing their work in the midst of chaos—from the national if not from the particular point of view. The matter is important, because a standard classification is a prerequisite to the national coordination of examinations, and certainly a useful support for transfers from one city to another, or one state to another.

A final technical change may be the reintroduction of the open register device for higher professional, scientific and specialized positions. Such positions normally will be filled by the promotion of competent undergraduates. In any organization, however, especially in a large one, or one whose duties are subject to sudden change, it will be necessary to recruit from the outside from time to time. The open register may prove to be useful in such cases. The established practice of periodic or occasional examinations will doubtless continue as the principal means of establishing junior registers; it is publicly understood, is patently competitive, and with machine scoring may be expeditious.

Other technical improvements may well become the order of the day during the 1940's. Research may disclose new methods which are not now contemplated, but it is more likely that we shall see the refinement of the existing pattern rather than the intro-

duction of a new one. It is noteworthy that the history of personnel work over a half century has not produced inventions which have revolutionized "production" but rather a series of modifications which have steadily improved the system without fundamental alteration. The principal exceptions might be the invention and application of the technique of duties classification, and the short answer form of examination. In any event, technical improvement will continue to make its contribution to personnel management in the new decade.

PRESENT ACHIEVEMENTS

THIS conclusion leads to our final observation. Americans have a passion for perfection. This leads naturally to dissatisfaction with prevailing standards, which are recognized to be less than perfect. Hence arises criticism of present procedures and conditions, which sometimes fails, in the earnestness of desire for improvement, to recognize adequately the levels of accomplishment already achieved. We criticize ourselves, our colleagues, our appropriations, the opposition of politicians, the lack of cooperation among bureau chiefs, the absence of public understanding and support, and so on through a long catalog of trouble.

Criticism is at bottom a healthy sign; it reveals impatience with anything less than the highest attainable degree of perfection. It needs to be balanced, however, with an enlightened appreciation of how far we have already come and where we now stand. Granted all the inadequacies which are now obvious, the level of public administration generally and of personnel management particularly is higher than at any time during the last half-century. On January 1, 1884, the federal civil service act covered 14,000 employees who clung to a precarious and uncertain future; now it covers 622,000 employees, firmly set in the established agencies and protecting one of the ablest groups of government scientists anywhere in the world.

Within the last two years personnel offi-

cers have won recognition in the federal service and despite momentary trials will beyond doubt establish themselves as firmly as their predecessors, those invaluable repositories of all knowledge and much responsibility, the chief clerks.

The state services are rapidly leaving behind the "personnel system" epitomized by Lewis Meriam in his classic phrase from Oklahoma, "The man with the red necktie got the job." Cooperative state-federal services seem destined to increase in number and in scope; they have brought with them a minimum uniform standard substantially higher than that achieved by many states, although lower than that established by some. The same influences which play upon the states as well as a steady independent current of municipal reform are raising standards also in local government.

WHILE, therefore, we see much to be done, we may take proper satisfaction in that which has been achieved. In ways adapted to American conditions, we are building a public service in which we may take satisfaction, a service strong enough to bear the heavy responsibilities of administration in a democratic state of continental proportions.

We look with interest and with appreci-

ation upon the accomplishments of older public services than ours, but we shall not achieve our approach to perfection by imitating them. Our national ideals have their own special forms, within which all our institutions must be built—the public service especially. In conformity with these ideals we have already learned how to construct and manage a public service on a vast scale, competent to deal with all manner of difficult technical and social problems, drawn from all sections and levels of the population, retaining the cherished American ideal of an equal chance for all to rise to the top, increasingly recognizing the work interests of those serving the state, and responsible to the will and the preferences of the citizens for whom the service exists.

TO THIS enterprise, personnel officers and technicians make a major contribution. Their task is to supply the man power for the public service, to cultivate it, to draw from it the full potentiality which enthusiasm, loyalty, esprit de corps and morale may produce. The task is more than technical, and it is shared by others, but it is an especial responsibility of the personnel men. It is more than technical, because it is human; and because it rises to the level of statesmanship.

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Political Neutrality of the Civil Service

H. ELIOT KAPLAN

AS the rapid expansion of government service brings with it new responsibilities toward industry and potential impingement on individual liberties, the problem of neutralization of our public service becomes a subject of grave consideration. In 1939 the Hatch Act, prohibiting political activity of federal employees, was adopted. Legislation to apply the Hatch Act to state and local agencies receiving federal grants-in aid has been introduced, and there is a demand for state laws curbing political activity of state and municipal employees. These facts prompt a reexamination and appraisal of the question of how far, if at all, the political privileges of civil service employees should be abridged under a democratic form of government.

Many who oppose restrictions on political privileges of public employees argue that such stringent prohibition against civil liberties of a great class of our citizens is a great and ominous departure from our traditional democratic principles. It is claimed that such denial of equality under the democratic concept is unheard of in a true democracy, and that it strikes at our fundamental rights of free speech and free assembly available to all citizens alike.

Is the trend definitely in the direction of stringent neutrality of the public service in the United States? Is this trend only a passing fancy born of current political expediency? Or is this the beginning of a positive movement deliberately designed to curb the potential danger of a politicalized bureaucracy? If the latter is the real pur-

pose, how far should restriction on political activity of public employees go? Where should the line be drawn between necessary political education by those best informed through actual practice with government administration, and uncontrolled political dominance by officeholders uniquely situated to propagandize for the "ins" against the "outs," and virtually controlling the balance of political power in our national and state governments?

VIEW OF THE EARLY PRESIDENTS

BEFORE examining the philosophy of political privileges of public employees in a democracy such as the United States, let us briefly review the history of political restrictions on public employees in this country.

In Washington's day our government service was naturally not very extensive. The number of federal employees was relatively small. The desires of the first President of the United States and the essential need for competence in public office in a newly formed republic were potent safeguards against the patronage system. The imperative concern of the leaders of the first administration for impartial administration of federal affairs in an experimental period prompted the employment of persons of recognized ability for the particular tasks assigned to them. Non-partisanship was not only recognized as politically expedient, but was a policy actually practiced during the first political administration in the United States.

President Washington was not unaware of the problem of neutrality of the civil service as a practical problem of governmental administration even in his day. While not indebted to any political party or faction for his election, he was nevertheless subjected to more than a little pressure from both personal and political advisors. He was of course partial to the Federalists. Undoubtedly with the gradual rise of party politics during his second administration, Washington gave more than a little consideration to the political assets of some of his later appointees. Washington was probably as concerned as any chief executive with the selection of subordinates in sympathy with his policies. That he considered this element as an important and necessary qualification for appointment to federal office is indicated by his letter to Timothy Pickering (September, 1795) in which he stated:

I shall not, while I have the honor of administering the government, bring men into office of consequence knowingly whose political tenets are adverse to the measures the general government is pursuing; for this, in my opinion, would be a sort of political suicide.

There is little evidence, however, that any pressure had been brought to bear on the rank and file of officeholders to engage actively in partisan political activity during the administration of our first President. There was undoubtedly little need for it.

WITH the campaign of President John Adams, more distinct party lines were drawn. Our two-party system showed definite signs of development and potential exploitation. Adams, although following in large measure the policies laid down by Washington, nevertheless found it politically desirable to remove some of the earlier appointees who appeared to have been "politically disrespectful" to his new administration. It is doubtful whether John Adams was really desirous of requiring his subordinates to engage in partisan politics in administering affairs of his government, but the pressure from the rising political organizations was probably too great for Adams

to withstand. After he left the Presidency Adams complained to a friend that "The president had not influence enough, and is not independent enough. Parties will not allow him to act for himself." He summed up his view of the presidential responsibility with regard to appointments thus:

The President has, or ought to have, the whole nation before him, and he ought to select the men best qualified and most meritorious for offices at his own responsibility, without being shackled by any check of law, constitution or institution. Without this unrestrained liberty, he is not a check upon the legislative power nor either branch of it. Indeed he must be the slave of the party that brought him in. He never can be independent or impartial.¹

Nevertheless it plainly appears that John Adams removed some subordinate officers for partisan political activity. For example, he ousted the collector at Portsmouth, and the commissioner of loans of New Hampshire, upon recommendation of some of his local political mentors. The complaint was that "their political conduct has been disrespectful to the Government and offensive to good men in the extreme." It was admitted that their work otherwise was quite satisfactory. Their removal was placed on the lofty plane that "justice to the public requires the removal of these men. They surely cannot complain if that government which is the object of their execrations should weaken their means of injuring it and abusing it."²

THE first really bitter political campaign developed with the election of Thomas Jefferson. The Jeffersonian Republicans clamored for the ousting of the Federalists who had been swept out of power. Jefferson found that practically all the federal offices were filled with adherents of the opposing political party. The relatively small number of removals made by Adams was magnified and used as a pretext for urging the ouster of the Federalists. Although Jefferson firmly believed that "fitness for the position, and

¹ *The Works of John Adams*, ed. Charles Francis Adams, IX, 634.

² *The Doctrine of Civil Service Neutrality in Party Conflicts in the United States and Great Britain*, by Wei-Kiung Chen—University of Chicago, June, 1937.

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"respectable and unexceptionable character" should be required for appointment to the public service, and that removals should not be made because of differing political principles, the temper of the victorious Republicans was much too great for him to resist and overcome. Jefferson, however, moved cautiously. He sought to make removals only where some evidence appeared that the incumbent was guilty of undue political activity against the administration. Slowly, over a period of two years, Jefferson removed many of his political opponents from the service.

Under Jefferson the Republican Party was not yet quite united. Realizing this situation, Jefferson three days after his inauguration wrote to James Monroe:

I have firmly refused to follow the counsels of those who have advised the giving of offices to some of their leaders, in order to reconcile. I have given, and will give only to Republicans, under existing circumstances. But I believe with others, that deprivations of office, if made on the ground of political principles alone, would revolt our new converts, and give a body to leaders who now stand alone. Some, I know, must be made. They must be as few as possible, done gradually, and bottomed on some malversation or inherent disqualification. Where we shall draw a line between retaining all and none, is not yet settled, and will not be until we get our administration together, and perhaps even then we shall proceed a talons, balancing our measures according to the impression we perceive them to make.*

Based no doubt on his experience with the political activity of federal officeholders during the presidential campaign in which he was involved, Jefferson in 1802 in attempting to stop electioneering by governmental employees had the following order proclaimed by the heads of the federal departments:

The President of the United States has seen with dissatisfaction officers of the General Government taking, on various occasions, active part in elections of the public functionaries, whether of the General or of the State governments. Freedom of election being essential to the mutual independence of governments. . . . so vitally cherished by most of our constitutions, it is deemed improper for officers depending on the Executive of the Union to attempt to control or influence the free exercise of the elective right. . . . The right of any officer to give his vote at elections as a qualified citizen is not meant to be restrained, nor, however given, shall it have any effect to his prejudice; but it is expected that he will not attempt to influence the votes of others, nor take any part in the business of elec-

tioneering, that being deemed inconsistent with the spirit of the Constitution and his duties to it.

WITH the advent of Andrew Jackson, the system of removals for political reasons was at its height. Political partisanship had grown to almost a religion. The demand to "turn the rascals out" transcended all other considerations. Economical and efficient administration of governmental affairs was given only casual consideration. But even in this seemingly unwholesome atmosphere of political barter and chicanery, Andrew Jackson appreciated the patent need for non-partisanship in government. As early as 1812, in a more sober moment and in a more detached mood, Jackson wrote to President-elect James Monroe:

The chief magistrate of a great and powerful nation should never indulge in party feelings. His conduct should be liberal and disinterested; always bearing in mind that he acts for the whole and not a part of the community.

FIRST RULES AGAINST POLITICAL ACTIVITY
RESTRICTIONS on the political activities of public officeholders are not new or even recent. Such restrictions were applied to certain public officials, such as judges, court clerks, and police officers, long before the civil-service laws were adopted. These inhibitions were invoked either by statute, administrative rule, or as a part of a code of ethics in actual practice.

The earlier civil-service laws prohibited political considerations in appointments and promotions, and prohibited political assessments of employees in the competitive (classified) service. Beyond these inhibitions the earlier laws did not go. But even before civil-service laws were considered, political statesmen appreciated the necessity for keeping the political activity of public employees within reasonable bounds. In 1841 Daniel Webster, then Secretary of State, issued at the direction of President Harrison an order prohibiting political activity by federal employees. President Hayes in 1877 issued an order against political activity of federal employees and pro-

* *The Writings of Thomas Jefferson*, VIII, 10.

hibiting political assessments. Within four years after the adoption of the present Federal Civil Service Act, President Cleveland, on July 14, 1886, issued an executive order forbidding political activity of employees in the federal civil service; but lacking statutory authority, its application to employees outside of the competitive civil service became difficult to enforce. Cleveland's order read as follows:

I deem this a proper time to especially warn all subordinates in the several Departments and all officeholders under the General Government against the use of their official positions in attempts to control political movements in their localities.

Officeholders are the agents of the people, not their masters. Not only is their time and labor due to the Government, but they should scrupulously avoid in their political action, as well as in the discharge of their official duty, offending, by display of obtrusive partisanship, their neighbors who have relations with them as public officials.

They should also constantly remember that their party friends, from whom they have received preference, have not invested them with the power of arbitrarily managing their political affairs. They have no right as officeholders to dictate the political action of their party associates, or to throttle freedom of action within party lines by methods and practices which pervert every useful and justifiable purpose of party organization.

The influence of Federal officeholders should not be felt in the manipulation of political primary meetings and nominating conventions. The use by these officials of their positions to compass their selection as delegates to political conventions is indecent and unfair; and proper regard for the proprieties and requirements of official place will also prevent their assuming the active conduct of political campaigns.

Individual interest and activity in political affairs are by no means condemned. Officeholders are neither disfranchised nor forbidden the exercise of political privileges; but their privileges are not enlarged nor is their duty to party increased to pernicious activity by officeholding.

A just discrimination in this regard between the things a citizen may properly do and the purposes for which a public office should not be used is easy in the light of a correct appreciation of the relation between the people and those intrusted with official place, and a consideration of the necessity, under our form of government, of political action free from official coercion.

LATER President Theodore Roosevelt, augmenting the executive order of President Cleveland, sought to differentiate between classified (competitive) and unclassified employees. He required a much stricter compliance on the part of the classified employees, but believed that for most employees in the unclassified service, who were viewed as political appointees, the re-

striction should be modified so as to preclude the unclassified employees from engaging only in offensive or pernicious political activity, and to prevent the unclassified employees from coercing the political action of the classified employees. President Theodore Roosevelt's order (June 3, 1907) provided:

Persons who by the provisions of these rules are in the competitive classified service, while retaining the right to vote as they pleased and to express their opinions on all political subjects, shall take no active part in political management or in political campaigns.

Under the June 24, 1938 executive order of President Franklin D. Roosevelt, active participation of a classified employee of the federal government in political management or in political campaigns is specified as one of the causes for which the Civil Service Commission may request the Comptroller General to withhold payment of salary. The pertinent provisions of this executive order are as follows:

For the proper supervision and enforcement of its functions, the Commission shall, if it finds that any person has been appointed to or is holding any position, whether by original appointment, promotion, assignment, transfer, or reinstatement, in violation of the Civil Service Act or of the rules promulgated in accordance therewith, or in violation of any Executive order or any regulations of the Commission, or that any employee subject to such Act, rules, orders, or regulations is taking active part in political management or political campaigns, after notice to the person affected and opportunity for explanation, certify the facts to the proper appointing officer with specific recommendation for discipline or dismissal; and such appointing officer shall carry out the recommendation. In the event of any continued violation for 10 days after such recommendation, the Commission shall certify the facts to the proper disbursing and auditing officers, and such officers shall not pay or allow the salary or wages of such person thereafter accruing.

THE Federal Civil Service Rules have long prohibited political activity on the part of federal employees whose positions were in the competitive classified service. Rule I now provides that:

No person in the executive civil service shall use his official authority or influence for the purpose of interfering with an election or affecting the results thereof. Persons who by the provisions of these rules are in the competitive classified service, while retaining the right to vote as they please and to express privately their opinions on all political subjects, shall take no active part in political management or in political campaigns.

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ADOPTION OF HATCH ACT

IMPLEMENTING this civil service rule which has been enforced with relative indifference and only casually applied, the Congress last year adopted the proposal sponsored by Senator Carl A. Hatch of New Mexico seeking to restrict pernicious political activity of all officers and employees of the executive branch of the federal government other than those holding major policy determining positions. The important provisions of the Hatch Act, signed by President Franklin D. Roosevelt on August 2, 1939, are included in sections 1, 3, and 9 which read as follows:

Sec. 1. . . . it shall be unlawful for any person to intimidate, threaten, or coerce, or to attempt to intimidate, threaten, or coerce, any other person for the purpose of interfering with the right of such other person to vote or to vote as he may choose, or of causing such other person to vote for, or not to vote for, any candidate for the office of President, Vice President, Presidential elector, Member of the Senate, or Member of the House of Representatives at any election held solely or in part for the purpose of selecting a President, a Vice President, a Presidential elector, or any Member of the Senate or any Member of the House of Representatives, Delegates or Commissioners from the Territories and insular possessions.

Sec. 3. It shall be unlawful for any person, directly or indirectly, to promise any employment, position, work, compensation, or other benefit, provided for or made possible in whole or in part by any act of Congress, to any person as consideration, favor, or reward for any political activity or for the support of or opposition to any candidate or any political party in any election.

Sec. 9. (a) It shall be unlawful for any person employed in the executive branch of the Federal Government, or any agency or department thereof, to use his official authority or influence for the purpose of interfering with an election or affecting the result thereof. No officer or employee in the executive branch of the Federal Government, or any agency or department thereof, shall take any active part in political management or in political campaigns. All such persons shall retain the right to vote as they may choose and to express their opinions on all political subjects. For the purposes of this section the term "officer" or "employee" shall not be construed to include (1) the President and Vice President of the United States; (2) persons whose compensation is paid from the appropriation for the office of the President; (3) heads and assistant heads of executive departments; (4) officers who are appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, and who determine policies to be pursued by the United States in its relations with foreign powers or in the Nation-wide administration of Federal laws.

(b) Any person violating the provisions of this section shall be immediately removed from the position or office held by him, and thereafter no part of the funds

appropriated by any act of Congress for such position or office shall be used to pay the compensation of such person.

The complete provisions of the Hatch Act were analyzed by the president of the National Civil Service Reform League in a letter addressed to Members of the House of Representatives in July, 1939, when the legislation was under consideration. From this analysis, it is clear that the foregoing sections of the Act and other sections not herein quoted forbid:

1. Intimidation or coercion of others for the purpose of interfering with their votes in national elections.
2. The promise of employment, compensation or other benefit as a reward or consideration for political activity or the support of or opposition to any candidate or party; and the deprivation of such employment, compensation or benefit (including work relief) on account of refusal to give such support.
3. Solicitation of political assessments or contributions from persons paid from relief funds.
4. Disclosure of the names of persons receiving employment or benefits from relief funds to any political candidate, committee or campaign manager.
5. Use of funds appropriated for relief or for public works for purpose of interfering with the right of any individual to vote as he chooses at any election.
6. Use of official authority or influence by any administrative or supervisory officer to interfere with an election or influence its results.
7. Activity in political management or political campaigns on the part of any person employed in an administrative or supervisory capacity.

THE enactment of the Hatch Act has led to considerable discussion in political circles, among political scientists, students of government, and public employees all over the nation. With more words than clarity, leaders of employees' organizations, statesmen, politicians, legislators, and editors have expressed their views about the implications and construction of the new law. So far as employees in the federal executive civil service are concerned, all that the Hatch Act does is to extend to the entire federal civil service the prohibitions against political activity, political coercion, and solicitation of campaign funds which, under the civil service law, have long been applied to persons in the competitive service. Indeed, these prohibitions would have been applied to more than 90 per cent of the employees excepted from the civil service rules since 1939 had these employees not been

kept out of the competitive service by acts of Congress under the plea of emergency.

The provisions of Section 9 (a) of the Hatch Act have caused spirited debate. This section deals with the restrictions of federal employees' political privileges. It has been construed by the Attorney General⁴ as applying to the following officers and employees, among others, in the executive branch of the federal government:

1. United States Attorneys and Marshals, their assistants and deputies.
2. Special Attorneys of the Department of Justice and Special Assistants to the Attorney General.
3. Temporary employees, substitute employees, and per diem employees, during the period of their active employment.
4. Reserve officers of the United States Army, Navy, and Marine Corps during the period of their active duty.
5. Furloughed employees and employees on leave, whether with or without pay.
6. Officers and employees of governmental agencies such as the Home Owners Loan Corporation, the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, and the Public Works Administration.
7. Officers and employees occupying administrative and supervisory positions in the Work Projects Administration, the National Youth Administration, and the Civilian Conservation Corps.

According to the Attorney General, Section 9 of the Hatch Act does not apply to the following:

1. Officers and employees of the legislative branch of the Federal Government, including secretaries and clerks to members of Congress and Congressional committees.
2. Officers and employees of the judicial branch of the Federal Government, including United States Commissioners, Clerks of United States Courts, Referees in Bankruptcy, and their secretaries, deputies, and clerks.
3. Officers and employees of State and local governments, even though their employment involves the expenditure of Federal funds.
4. Persons who are retained from time to time to perform special services on a fee basis and who take no oath of office, such as fee attorneys, inspectors, appraisers, and management brokers for the Home Owners Loan Corporation and special fee attorneys for the Reconstruction Finance Corporation.
5. Persons who receive benefit payments, such as old age assistance and unemployment compensation under the Social Security Act, rural rehabilitation grants, and payments under the Agricultural Conservation Program.
6. Retired employees.

IT has been ruled by the Attorney General that the following acts constitute taking an "active part in political management or in political campaigns" within the meaning

of Section 9 of the Hatch Act:

1. Holding office in a political party or a political club.
2. Attending political conventions as a delegate or alternate.
3. Serving on committees of a political party or a political club.
4. Distributing buttons or printed matter in support of any candidate or party.
5. Serving at party headquarters or as watchers at the polls, or otherwise assisting a party or candidate in any primary or election campaign, whether or not Federal officers are involved.
6. Being a candidate for elective office—Federal, State, or local.
7. Soliciting funds for a political organization or campaign fund.

The following activities are not considered to be prohibited by the Act:

1. Holding membership in a political organization and attending its meetings otherwise than as an officer or delegate.
2. Participating in the activities of civil associations and educational groups, provided the activities in question are divorced from the campaigns of particular candidates or parties.
3. Holding a State or local office (but see (6) above).

It is likely that the provisions of the Hatch Act will eventually be somewhat more broadly construed to correspond with interpretations of the existing civil service rule prohibiting political activities on the part of federal employees in the competitive service.⁵ However, it is significant that in interpreting provisions of Section 9 of the Hatch Act the Attorney General⁶ has pointed out that:

Civil Service employees are required by the Civil Service Rules to confine their opinions on political subjects to private expression. From the corresponding provision of the Hatch law, on the other hand, the word "privately" was omitted. Accordingly, as stated by the President in his message to the Congress approving the Hatch bill, non-civil service employees would not violate the Act "if they should merely express their opinion or preference publicly—orally, by radio, or in writing—without doing so as part of an organized political campaign."

EXTENSION OF RESTRICTIONS SUGGESTED

IT is proposed by many to extend the Hatch Act to prohibit political activities of state and local government employees

⁴A detailed statement regarding interpretations that have been placed upon Federal laws and the civil service rules in this matter has been prepared by the United States Civil Service Commission and is known as *Political Activity and Political Assessments of Federal Officeholders and Employees* (Form 1236).

⁵Circular No. 3285 issued August 10, 1939.

⁶Circular No. 3301 issued October 26, 1939.

paid in whole or in part from, or participating in the expenditure of, grants-in-aid from the federal treasury. Legislation of this character has already been passed by the United States Senate. The Social Security Board has already insisted that employees in the state and local employment security and public assistance agencies under the Board's supervision shall refrain from engaging in political affairs. As a correlative provision in the merit system plan for state agencies as evolved by the Board under recent federal legislation requiring such agencies to adhere to merit system standards in appointments, the general prohibitions contemplated in the Hatch Act have been invoked by the Board to cover employees in these agencies.

In about one-fourth of the states, prohibitions against one or another form of political activity already exist. Agitation for additional state and local legislation similar to the Hatch Act to affect state and local employees has been started in many states and municipalities. Bills to compel neutrality of civil service employees have already been introduced in many legislatures throughout the country. These efforts will undoubtedly result in needed legislation to control the extent and character of political activities in which state and local government workers may engage. This legislation may prove to be one important factor encouraging the extension of merit systems to those areas not now covered by appropriate civil service provisions.

USE OF POLITICAL COERCION

THE use of public employees for political purposes is not always confined to the patronage-mongers and the unscrupulous politicians. The spoilsman's device of coercing civil service employees to engage in pernicious partisan political activity, from securing names on nomination papers to packing the political meeting places or acting as convention delegates or making partisan campaign speeches, is often used by the "reformers" as well. Governor Gifford

Pinchot, "purest of the pure," was accused in the primary fight of 1933 in Pennsylvania of having coerced the state employees to take a strong stand politically in his behalf, and of having "milked the state employees to help the cause of virtue."⁷

Even the lofty Farmer-Labor Party of Minnesota is accused of having assessed public employees one to three percent of their pay for the political war chest, and of having persuaded the state employees to help get out the vote.⁸

WHAT the statesmen of lesser stature are wont to do in assessing civil service employees for political contributions and coercing partisan political activity is only too well known. A few reminders might be of interest. A former Chairman of the Republican County Committee of Cuyahoga County, Ohio, was actually moved to bring suit to test the legality of restrictions on political activity of provisional and temporary employees in the state civil service. Why? The status of committeeman was particularly important to the Republican Organization because of the understanding that only committeemen and ward leaders would be recommended and retained for state jobs.⁹

Assessments against state employees in Illinois by the Democratic organization, known as "The Illinoisans" became so widespread that the Union League Club of Chicago and some of the civic organizations were forced to bring suit against the offenders. The practice of "pay up, get out and work, or else," according to the *Chicago Tribune* (January 17, 1940) was applied equally to the exempt and competitive class employees.¹⁰ The "Loyalty Club" of Michigan officeholders in Detroit served notice on its followers in the Club to "get out the vote

⁷Editorial, *New York Times*, June 1, 1934.

⁸Duluth *News Tribune*, February 4, 1935.

⁹Cleveland Plain Dealer, February 2, 1939.

¹⁰For an interesting report of an investigation by a Civil Service Commission of the enforcement see the Report of the Illinois State Civil Service Commission, November 15, 1939.

for the party or lose their jobs." Employees were coerced into the most pernicious kind of political activity, including driving trucks and cars around town at night with campaign placards and tacking up political posters all at the employees' own expense. In another state public employees were required to ring door bells, make political speeches, and distribute petitions in lieu of making cash contributions. Later, when an investigation ensued, the employees testified their political work was "voluntary."

POLITICAL assessments continue to exist largely because of the difficulty of securing evidence against the offenders. Those who are generally involved in the transaction are either protected by their political friends in power on whose behalf they have acted, or the victims are importuned or intimidated. As a result unscrupulous politicians are emboldened to extend the sphere of exploitation. The step from financial compulsion to requiring political service by employees is a relatively short one. Often the temptation to an employee to contribute in terms of political service instead of cash is too inviting to resist. Threats and intimidation against those unable to meet the financial obligation makes resistance to temptation very weak.

ENCROACHMENT ON CIVIL LIBERTIES?

IT IS argued by some political scientists that by restricting the political privileges of public employees we are not only interfering with their civil liberties, but are eliminating from our public forums an entire class of citizens who are in the most advantageous positions to bring the facts of governmental affairs to public attention. They contend that public employees are best equipped to help the public interpret political issues affecting our government and appraise and evaluate the interest and competence of candidates for political office in the light of these political issues. There is undoubtedly much to be said for this point of view. The "partial disfranchisement"

that restrictions on political privileges of public employees entails if extended to all public employees today would affect approximately 3,700,000 persons throughout the nation. In another generation continued expansion of governmental activities might possibly extend such restrictions to a public service considerably larger than that of today. How seriously would such "partial disfranchisement" affect our political and social lives?

Many leaders of the civil-service employee groups are genuinely of the opinion that the Hatch Act seriously abridges the inherent citizen rights of civil employees. Others pretend to be greatly offended by this "denial" of equal rights of citizenship because it interferes with their own game of exploitation of the civil service for selfish purposes. It is doubtful, however, whether the rank and file of public employees have any serious objection to such restraints. Most of them welcome the law privately, although for strategic reasons they appear publicly to be against such restrictions. Take, for example, the experience in New York City with the new law against employee contributions to political campaigns. When the provision was first proposed in the new charter a few years ago the employees were alarmed at the intrusion upon their "political rights" as citizens. In reality the employees supported the law at the polls largely because of the new "freedom" the new charter held out to them. Today none of the employees in New York City sheds tears over his legal inability to make campaign contributions to political war chests. The same reaction will undoubtedly follow the application of the Hatch Act.

It is significant that neither the National Federation of Federal Employees nor the American Federation of Government Employees opposed the Hatch Act. Luther C. Steward, President of the former organization, testified some years ago before the Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel:

I am not in favor of unrestricted political activity.

I don't think that people who are permitted to enter on a life career as public employees should get right out actively and take leading parts in purely political matters. But here is the sort of situation that we have. We have restrictive statutes prohibiting political activities of federal employees within the competitive classified services. In other words, they cannot defend themselves, and nobody has defended them except their own organization.

All through the public service, not only policy-making positions but comparatively minor positions are political. It is possible to find right in the same office people doing very much the same work; one, a political appointee, can and does very freely indulge in political activity, and when the party for which he is working is in power he moves forward much more rapidly than the person right across the table who is in the competitive classified service and hence restricted.

NOT a few idealists and theorists argue that we have long ago passed from the "police state" to the "service state;" that with the virtual elimination of the patronage system in the United States, the new concept of governmental responsibility under our democracy, and the high educational standing of our present citizenry with its keen, intelligent interest in governmental affairs, we no longer need have any concern over neutrality of our civil service. They point out that in a "service state" the merit system becomes a natural and compelling influence in administration of government; ergo, there is impelling need for those in the "service state" to inform and educate the public as to the evaluation of political and economic issues and appraise our political candidates for responsible public management. In time this theory may prove itself, but judged in the cold light of long experience, fortified by recent developments, this sophomoric philosophy appears to be no more than wishful thinking.

It is pointed out by some that in Sweden we have an excellent example of the proper relationship between the state and its employees, a "democratic" government where its employees are unrestricted in their political privileges, and where the experiment has proved eminently successful. There civil service employees are permitted to hold other public offices, national and local, and even hold seats in the national legislature. This was also the practice for some time un-

der the late German Republic where a considerable number of seats in the Reichstag was held by civil service employees. In France also the civil service employees are unrestricted in their political activity; but there the experiment has not been an overwhelming success.

In comparing the situation in Sweden with the conditions in the United States, we must not overlook the inherent dissimilarities of our political party system of government; nor should we lose sight of the absence of any spoils system in Sweden comparable to ours. Unfortunately, our particular two-party system has encouraged the patronage system as a necessary concomitant of our political organizations. That in itself has militated against granting the right to unrestricted political activity to our public employees. Even the Weimar Constitution of Germany, possibly anticipating the inevitable rise of the patronage system in the new republic, in spite of absence of restrictions against political activity of public employees, found it necessary to proclaim that "civil servants are the servants of the whole community, not of a party." (Article 130.)¹¹

The urgent necessity for political neutrality of the civil service in a democracy such as ours where changes in our political complexion are often kaleidoscopic and result in a "procession of casualties," has been well expressed by Dr. Herman Finer in his *Theory and Practice of Modern Government*, where he states:

... Whatever the changes in the political constellation, however violent its revolutions, the State, which is certainty, regularity, order, must continue. It must not cease: cessation is mortal. The instrument of continuity of services, which *ex hypothesi* are vital, is the Civil Service. Conceive the social and economic loss in modern England or Germany or the U. S. A. if the administrative services were the sport of political parties; the waste of organization, technique, expertise, professional zeal and the adaptation which comes of years or regular and uninterrupted devotion to duties! All parties in the State must be sure of a highly efficient instrument, however diverse their policies, for no policy is worth the paper it is written on unless there is an executive force behind it. Parties may differ on all things, but one thing is their common

¹¹Carl J. Friedrich, "The German and Prussian Civil Service," in *The Civil Service in the Modern State*, p. 396.

desire: power when they are in office, and such power is executive power. Our chief hope that political ministers and a helpless public will be prepared to learn from real science, resides in the flawless impartiality of their experts; and only the fact will create the confidence.¹³

Professor Harold J. Laski believes that "the surest road to maximizing the neutrality of the civil service" is to debar civil servants from a political career, for "the knowledge that this road is debarred to them is vital not only to the *esprit de corps* of the service but also to the freedom from political influence on its habits."¹⁴

ONE interesting question that came before the Royal Commission on the Civil Service in England in 1910 was the necessity or desirability of placing any restriction upon the political activity of members of the civil service. The Commission had no hesitancy in expressing the view that complete liberty of political action for civil service employees "would inevitably result in frequent conflicts between the desires and interests of the officer as a citizen and his duty as an official, and that such conflicts could not fail to have disastrous effect on the morale of the public service." The Commission was fearful that removal of restrictions against such political activity might result in the public's loss of confidence in the impartiality of the civil service, and ministers might cease to believe that their subordinates were really giving them faithful support in carrying out their political policies. The Commission summed up its beliefs in the following manner:

If this were so, the system of recruitment by open competition would prove but a frail barrier against Ministerial patronage in all but the earlier years of service; the Civil Service would cease to be in fact an impartial non-political body, capable of loyal service to all Ministers and parties alike; the change would soon affect the public estimation of the Service, and the result would be destructive of what undoubtedly is at present one of the greatest advantages of our administrative system and one of the most honourable traditions of our public life.¹⁵

¹³ Vol. II, p. 1398.

¹⁴ Harold J. Laski, "The British Civil Service," in *The Yale Law Review*, December, 1936, pp. 340, 349.

¹⁵ *Fourth Report of the Royal Commission on the Civil Service*, Cmd. 7338 (1914), p. 97.

WE NEED not go to England for practical observations on the inherent difficulties of permitting uncontrolled participation on the part of those engaged in the public service. The writings of American scholars, officials, and publicists are replete with remarks on this subject. Some of these have been included in previous paragraphs. Space does not permit recounting them in detail. The argument against permitting political activity among public employees was cogently expressed in the following words by Theodore Roosevelt when he was a member of the United States Civil Service Commission:

A man in the classified service has an entire right to vote as he pleases, and to express privately his opinions on all political subjects; but he should not take any active part in political management or in political campaigns, for precisely the same reasons that a judge, an Army officer, a Regular soldier, or a policeman is barred from taking such active part.

Only recently one of our most prominent publicists and political observers, William Allen White, in commenting on the extension of the Hatch Act, wrote:

Any law that curtails the power of men in office to hold them in their jobs by political manipulation is a good law for taxpayers. Also it is a good law for fundamental democracy. . . . It is a bill to make a law long overdue. It is a righteous principle and it should have the support of all good citizens.¹⁶

Senator Morris Sheppard of Texas, Chairman of the Senate Campaign Expenditures Committee, was reported¹⁷ as having made the following terse statement as the result of an investigation in which he participated in 1938:

Government employees are working for the whole people, whom they are supposed to serve impartially. If they are politically active, they are taking time from the efficient performance of their job.

THE right of public employees to engage in partisan political activity on the same basis as is accorded to all other citizens is a matter that may not be dismissed too lightly. As has been stated, many sincerely believe that it would be a serious mistake to exclude from participation in our "democratic system" such "a large percentage of

¹⁶ Editorial, *Emporia Gazette*, Jan. 20, 1940.

¹⁷ *Washington Post*, August 22, 1938.

our best-informed voting population." Others fear that it may be an infringement upon the civil liberties of the civil service employees. Indeed, the Civil Liberties Union was reported to have threatened to institute proceedings in the courts to test the constitutionality of the Hatch Act as violating the civil rights of public employees. One disingenuous state attorney general has held that any ban on political activity by state employees would violate a provision in the state constitution which prohibits an employee from being discharged "for religious or political reasons"!

But the more serious-minded and better informed have posed the question as to just how far we ought to go in sanctioning prohibitory measures against employee participation in politics. One prominent political scientist, E. A. Cottrell, of Stanford University, stated the problem briefly:

We have not been able to draw a proper line between what we might call the employee's individual activity as a citizen and his activity for superiors or for those in office whom he would like to favor, or those running for office. When we think of the tremendous percentage of persons in this country who are now on some form of public salary or grant or pension, and see the tremendous power which they may exercise at the polls, I think we have to consider whether some measure cannot be taken to limit the so-called political activities of this group.

PROBLEM OF INTERPRETATION

IN SEEKING to abridge the political activity of public employees, some legislatures undoubtedly will go to extremes. Little distinction, it is feared, will be made between the right of employee groups to support or oppose issues in which they may be directly and vitally concerned and their support of or opposition to a particular candidate deliberately opposing or favoring their cause. The issue may not directly, or even indirectly, involve the political party itself. How is the distinction to be made?

Equally difficult will be the problem of distinguishing between public expression of employee attitudes on nonpartisan policies by responsible representatives of the employee organizations and prohibited political activity. Where does the former end and the latter begin?

Like all general restrictive laws, statutory restraints against political activity require for their proper enforcement intelligent interpretation and application. Here even more so than usual, for involved in the administration of the law are the possible infringements on the personal liberties of the civil service employees. One must ever bear in mind the real intent and purpose of these restrictive laws. Essentially they are designed to curb offensive, obnoxious, and pernicious activities of employees so as to make our civil service as neutral, nonpartisan, and impartial as possible under a democracy. These laws were never intended to place the employees in a political strait-jacket. The tendency has sometimes been to attempt to restrain the activities of employees beyond reasonable bounds, overlooking the real purpose of the law. Realism and practical sense must be injected into the administration of these laws. The difficulty arises, of course, in attempting to draw the line between permissible activities and what constitutes offensive partisan activities. A few general principles would need to be observed, however, if these restrictive laws are to be properly applied.

THREE should be clear distinction made of the right of employees to participate in political activities which are patently nonpartisan in character, and which do not directly affect or influence the election of any particular party candidate. Active participation in discussions relating to public issues referred to the electorate, such as proportional representation, the city-manager plan, the merit system laws, bond issues, and constitutional amendments generally, should not be included in such restraints. While some of these issues might be indirectly involved in the election of a political candidate, nevertheless it is better that the employees be permitted to exercise their political privileges in connection with these public issues which affect them in the same manner as all other citizens, than to preclude them for fear of some abuse. In

rare instances will we be running the risk of such participation on the part of the employees tending toward really offensive partisan political activity. In any event the importance of having their intelligent participation is worth the minor risk involved.

Certainly these prohibitory laws should not be so literally construed as to lead to absurdity.

ONE might appreciate the literal interpretation by the courts of these restrictive laws, but hardly the perspicacity of some courts in straining the intent and primary purposes of these laws. An illustration in point is the late ruling of an Ohio Common Pleas Court (July 25, 1939) wherein the court ruled that classified civil service employees may not take part in a campaign for or against any issue to be determined by a vote of the people. The Cleveland Law Department had ruled that city employees could take part in a campaign for tax levies, bond issues, charter amendments involving the raising of tax funds, but could not, however, take part in a campaign for a charter amendment involving the civil service or pension issues. The case grew out of protests by the Civil Service Employees' Association against the practice of coercing employees in the city departments to obtain signatures on pledge cards for the tax levy referendum. The action was instituted by the Citizens League of Cleveland which for long had contended against employee participation in any form of political activity. In a declaratory judgment denying the right of public employees to participate in the tax levy campaign in any form whatever, the court resorted to literal interpretation of the words "political" and "campaign." The court stated:

Political campaigns may involve issues other than that of the election of public officials and political organizations are frequently formed in the interest of issues and not office seekers. The words are not used in any unusual sense but have ascribed to them their ordinary meaning.

The court then discusses with meticulous care and at considerable length the dictio-

nary meaning of the words "political" and "campaign," including Webster and Bouvier, and then proceeds as follows:

From these definitions there can be but one result in giving the correct interpretation to the words "political campaign." A political campaign is any concerted effort to influence citizens to act in the exercise of their right of franchise in favor or against a candidate for public office or a person seeking public office, or for or against any public question which by law is to be determined by a vote of the people.

Whether or not one in the classified service is engaged in a political campaign is to be determined with respect to what he does in supporting or attempting to defeat any candidate for public office or a political issue as herein defined. A classified service employee does not by accepting such employment waive his right of franchise or the right in a proper manner to express his views upon candidates or issues, but he does among other things waive the right to take part in, or conduct a political campaign. It would be impossible to set forth every set of facts that would constitute the conduct thus prohibited. All that can be done is to set forth the rule by which his conduct will be determined, as follows:

One is engaged in a political campaign when he either by himself or by joining with others makes a concerted or systematic effort to influence others in their exercise of the right of franchise in favor of or against either a candidate for public office or any issue to be determined by a vote of the people.

This strict interpretation of the political activity restriction law may be edifying, but it does not view the problem with realism or practicality in the light of the real intent and purpose of these restraining laws which have as their ultimate motive the prohibition of pernicious partisan activity against party candidates.

A MORE practical viewpoint is that expressed by the California State Personnel Board in construing the California law prohibiting political activity of state employees. The opinion was handed down as the result of a question raised by the California State Employees' Association prior to the special election of November 7, 1939. The Board's opinion, which appeared in the form of a resolution, related only to measures or issues to be submitted at the special election, and did not refer to any of the candidates. The resolution read in part:

It is the opinion of this Board that all state civil service employees have the right to participate in the campaigns for and against the measures to be voted on at the November 7, 1939 special election, and such participation is not in violation of the State Civil Service Act, and in particular that part relating to

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"improper political activity," nor any other provision of the state constitution or state statutes; provided, however, that such participation shall not involve state time, the prestige and power of the employee's position or the use of state facilities.

Secretary of the Treasury Henry Morgenthau, Jr., in 1934 issued a new regulation forbidding Treasury workers to engage in partisan political activity, which would seem to go as far as practicality permits. Employees of the Treasury were denied the right:

- "1. To hold any other public or political office.
- "2. To become a candidate for a political office.
- "3. To be a member or officer of any official committee of a political party, or of any other committee that solicits funds for political purposes.
- "4. To own, edit or manage a political publication.
- "5. To display such obtrusive partisanship as to cause public scandal.
- "6. To attempt to manipulate party primaries or conventions.
- "7. To use his position to bring about his selection as a delegate to conventions.
- "8. To act as chairman of a political convention.
- "9. To assume the active conduct of a political campaign."

If these restrictive laws are not to fall into public disfavor and become inoperative and unenforceable, they must be administered with common sense and sound discretion. They must be applied with as little infringement on the civil rights of public employees as the spirit of these laws will permit. These problems are not easy of solution, and the line may be difficult to draw. It would seem, however, that both prudence and practicality will largely contribute to and determine the solution. So long as the actions of the employees or their representatives are not offensive to the public; so long as employees can justify concerted action because the issue involved peculiarly and directly affects their interest; so long as their participation does not become pernicious and obtrusive, the public will probably pay little attention to them. But like most disciplinary laws, the extent to which the Hatch Act will be enforced will in the long run depend on the attitude of the public. This, in turn, will depend on the attitude and conduct of the employees as well as the sagacity and good faith of the politicians.

IN DISCUSSIONS of this whole subject much attention has been given to the inherent political rights and privileges of employees. Unfortunately little attention has been given to the rights and welfare of the public. The public is obviously interested in having the employee do his work well; in having the employee give his time and energies to the public service, not to tasks designed solely to benefit political organizations. Our taxpayers can hardly be expected to be enthusiastic over paying employees for political service, rather than for public faithfulness. Nor would the public be enthralled by the spectacle of officers and employees in the public service wrangling among themselves in political factional fights, party conventions controlled by public officeholders, and political club-houses run by public employees. Moreover, from the public employee's point of view, undue political activity invites political reprisals and results in friction and hardship to the employee himself.

It is difficult to see how legitimate activities of public employees will suffer under laws such as the Hatch Act. Such laws will hardly be construed or applied as prohibiting organized employees from protecting their rights or interests in matters directly affecting their own working conditions, grievances, and general welfare. If this may be viewed as wishful thinking or implied winking at strict and rigid legalistic interpretation and construction of the Hatch Act, let us be reminded that even in application of law there is still practicality and wisdom.

The validity of laws restricting public employees from engaging in undue political activity or making contributions to political-party campaign funds has often been attacked by the uninformed. They fail to appreciate that the rules against political activity are not discriminatory in a legal sense; that they affect equally all persons within the classification of public employees. These laws do not deprive the employees of "fundamental" rights. They

leave the employee free to vote as he pleases and to express his views privately. They do, however, prevent persons while in the service of the Government from using their official positions and money contributed by the public for the benefit of any political party.

ATTITUDE OF THE COURTS

THREE can be little doubt of the validity of legislation prohibiting political activity or political contributions on the part of public employees, whether elected, appointed politically, or serving as a result of competitive tests. The right of the Congress or the state legislatures to provide any reasonable restrictions on the activities of public employees, including prohibitions against political activity, has long been recognized by the courts. The United States Supreme Court has sustained the power of the Congress to prescribe rules of conduct for officials and employees of the federal government (*U. S. v. Wurzbach*, 280 U. S. 396). As long ago as *Ex parte Curtis*, (106 U. S. 371) the power of the Congress to provide any reasonable conditions for public employment was clearly recognized by the Court. The right of the state legislatures similarly to prescribe conditions for employment by the state has been upheld (*Atkins v. The State of Kansas*, 191 U. S. 207; *People v. McCullough*, 254 Ill. 1, 98 N. E. 156; *McAuliffe v. Mayor of New Bedford*, 155 Mass. 116, 29 N. E. 517; *Gianatasio v. Kaplan*, 257 N. Y. 531).

The issue of prohibiting political activity of employees of the state was squarely decided by the Supreme Court of Oregon in 1931 in the case of *Stowe v. Ryan* (296 Pac. 857), where the court upheld the action of the civil service commission of Multnomah County (Portland) in removing an employee from office for violating the state law prohibiting employees from engaging

in political activity. It was urged upon the court that such prohibitory statute was unconstitutional, as it deprived the employee of certain rights as a citizen of the state. It was attacked also as invalid class legislation, and repugnant to the Bill of Rights provisions of the Federal Constitution. The Oregon court sustained the power of the state to prescribe the conditions of service and the rules of conduct for its officers and employees to the extent that it may become necessary to promote efficiency and integrity in the discharge of their duties and proper discipline in the public service.

MANY politicians would rather play politics than serve the public. This is amply demonstrated by the action of so many public employees who, since the enactment of the Hatch Act, have been willing to sacrifice their regular governmental positions to serve their political organizations! Such martyrdom is inspiring and significant. Such undying loyalty is almost to be admired. But is not this blind loyalty to partisanship the gravest danger to a democracy when imparted to the rank and file of the civil service, either through political coercion or misguided zeal for a political cause? Loyalty in the civil employee should mean allegiance solely to the government of the day, and not to a partisan political organization. What we need most of all in our democracy is an impartial, disinterested and detached public service—one that represents the people's civil service, not the service of the political party in power. Indeed, the very nature of the government service today, with the new social agencies created under the welfare and economic programs during the last decade, calls more than ever for impartial administration of these agencies. The elimination of undue political activity on the part of public employees has now become imperative.

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Merit Systems under the Social Security Act¹

ALBERT H. ARONSON

OUR national tendency to regard a problem as fairly well solved with the enactment of a law is nowhere better illustrated than in the field of public personnel administration. There is danger that we will wishfully look on opportunity as achievement.

"Regarded as the most significant development since passage of the United States Civil Service Act, as well as a blow against the spoils system," says the *New York Times* of February 11, 1940, "recent amendments to the Social Security Act, calling for a merit system of personnel administration, have been accepted by state employment security and State public assistance agencies in every State."

Without attempting to determine the exact significance of the act, it will be generally recognized that the initiation of merit systems in every state in the Union, involving nearly 100,000 state and local employees, will have a profound bearing upon the future of merit systems in the United States. There is an opportunity in each state for a demonstration project which will convince the public of the desirability and feasibility of merit system administration; there is, at the same time, a very real danger that an improperly administered system may result in a setback to merit system administration which it would take years to overcome.

The state administrators of these Social

Security programs are for the most part squarely in favor of sound merit systems, but they recognize the grave problems of applying merit principles to an area where political pressures have been powerful and they appreciate the necessity for obtaining public support and understanding, particularly in the application of the merit system to local employees. It is wise to remember that progress cannot be faster than the public will. Progress depends on public acceptance as well as on public need. Despite almost universal lip service to the merit system, there are widespread impressions that some existing systems are not administered with integrity, and that others administered honestly merely provide protection for the plodder and the petty office-politician and are not successful in recruiting, selecting, and retaining employees of the highest abilities for the public service. Proposed extensions of the merit system very properly bring a searching challenge to its basic concepts and to its actual operations.

THE LEGAL PROVISIONS

THE Social Security Act, as amended in 1939, requires that approved state public assistance plans and unemployment compensation laws provide, after January 1, 1940, for necessary methods of administration, "including methods relating to the establishment and maintenance of personnel standards on a merit basis." It is further provided that the Social Security Board "shall exercise no authority with respect to

¹The opinions expressed in this article are those of the author and do not reflect the official views of the Social Security Board.

the selection, tenure of office, and compensation of any individual employed in accordance with such methods." The original act provided that the necessary methods of administration need not include "methods relating to the selection, tenure of office and compensation of personnel."

The social security programs on a federal-state cooperative basis include, in the employment security field, the administration of unemployment compensation under the Social Security Act and of public employment services under the Wagner-Peyser Act. In the public assistance field these programs include aid to the needy aged, aid to the needy blind, and aid to dependent children, and are usually administered by state welfare departments. Related state programs administered under grants-in-aid from the Children's Bureau are those of child welfare services, maternal and child health services, and crippled children's services.

THE philosophy of the grant-in-aid is outside the scope of this article, but it may be pointed out that the federal grant-in-aid involves the idea of national standards and state administration. It is based upon recognition of the advantages of decentralization and of administration closer to the point of contact with the people; at the same time it seeks the advantages of a national system of financing, in recognition of the fact that local financial resources may be inversely, rather than directly, related to local needs, and the advantages of national standards in an age of interstate industry, labor mobility, and transient populations.

In a grant-in-aid program sound personnel practices are not only necessary, as in other programs, for effective administration, but are conducive to actual decentralization of authority in operations. The Social Security Board, from the outset of its programs in 1936 recognized this and endeavored to encourage the establishment of merit systems for state unemployment compensation and public assistance agencies.

The draft State Unemployment Compensation Bill suggested by the Board contained a provision for personnel selection on a merit basis and this was adopted by many of the states. The Board's Bureaus of Public Assistance and Unemployment Compensation, utilizing technical resources in the Board's Personnel Division, offered the states some advice in this field. In 1937 the Social Security Board established a State Technical Advisory Service, designed to offer to the state agencies, at their request, technical aid in the establishment of merit systems.

AT THE time of the enactment of the amendments to the Social Security Act in August 1939, in addition to ten states where the social security agencies were operating under state civil service, twenty-one states had merit systems for unemployment compensation personnel, five for public assistance personnel, and one had a joint system for unemployment compensation and public assistance personnel. These systems varied in their standards and their effectiveness. With the enactment of the personnel amendment to the Social Security Act, merit systems will be set up in all states. They will be state administered and under state rules but conforming to minimum standards promulgated under the Act, based upon accepted merit principles. Sixteen states now have state-wide civil service systems that will embrace the employees of the state social security agencies, in some cases with certain supplemental regulations applicable to the social security agencies. In six of these sixteen states, in which the public assistance programs are administered on a state-county basis, county employees in these programs will be covered by merit systems which, it is hoped, will be administered by the state civil service agencies. However, there are proposals in several of these states to set up independent merit systems to cover the county employees.

The administrative and technical personnel of the state employment services have

been for some years under a merit system initiated by the United States Employment Service. The clerical personnel of the state employment services have not been under this system but in some cases have been under the merit system serving the unemployment compensation agency. Beginning in 1934 the United States Employment Service held examinations for such positions as employment service manager and interviewer in states in which there was not an existing civil service agency. While the results varied to some extent from state to state, viewed nationally the system was a notable advance; in some states this was the first merit system program of any kind.

UNDER an executive order, issued in pursuance of the Reorganization Act of 1939, the United States Employment Service was merged with the Social Security Board's Bureau of Unemployment Compensation in a Bureau of Employment Security. The personnel work previously done by the Division of Personnel Administration of the United States Employment Service was merged with the State Technical Advisory Service of the Board.

The Social Security Board decided that instead of continuing the system of federal examinations for employment service positions, these positions would be covered by the state-administered merit systems serving the unemployment compensation agency. This transition is now taking place; as soon as state merit systems are established under the new standards, they will take over the eligible lists established by the United States Employment Service. It was felt by the Board that the advantages of local autonomy and administration outweighed certain advantages of coordination and economy in the administration of uniform federal examinations. In general, state officials have approved this decentralization, but in some instances there has been a fear that some of the gains made by the work of the United States Employment Service might be lost.

LOCAL COOPERATION NEEDED

TO DEVELOP a merit system under any circumstances involves delicate questions of public and political relations. The complication of federal-state relations and state-county relations in the establishment of a merit system makes the task one to be approached deliberately, with the cooperation of officials at each level of government, and in such a way as to gain public understanding. However, the requirements of the federal law, enacted August 10, 1939, and effective January 1, 1940, did not leave much time before the merit system was to be inaugurated.

The Social Security Act placed a mandate on the Social Security Board to see that state unemployment compensation and public assistance programs embraced provisions for a merit system after January 1, 1940. The Board recognized that it was impossible to have fully-functioning merit systems by that date, and therefore, indicated that by January 1 the state agencies need only have adopted merit rules and regulations, or if this were not feasible, have indicated acceptance of certain basic standards, and have submitted a schedule as to when the rules and regulations were to be adopted and other steps taken to implement them. The schedule was to be determined primarily by each state in the light of its local conditions.

AFTER consultation with state officials the Board formulated a statement of basic principles entitled, "Standards for a Merit System of Personnel Administration in State Employment Security and Public Assistance Agencies." These standards were promulgated November 1, 1939. They call for the application of state civil service or the development of a state merit system organization serving a state social security agency, or serving several social security agencies jointly. In the interests of economy and efficiency and of public convenience, the Social Security Board recommended that merit systems to be established cover

all the agencies administering social security programs in the state. In all cases the merit system for the employment security agency will include the personnel of the employment service as well as the unemployment compensation division. However, there is no requirement under the Social Security Act that the merit system be a joint one for both the public assistance and employment security agencies. In some states the agencies have not been able to agree on a joint system, and hence separate merit systems will serve the agencies.

In some states the health departments administering crippled children services and maternal and child health services will be served by the same merit system as the public assistance and employment security agencies. The Children's Bureau has promulgated personnel standards for the programs under its jurisdiction similar to those developed by the Social Security Board. Where a merit system serves part of the health department personnel, the United States Public Health Service has indicated that the merit system should be extended to all personnel engaged in federal-state cooperative public health projects.

THE RECOMMENDED STRUCTURE

IN ACCORDANCE with the standards promulgated under the Social Security Act, rules and regulations are to be adopted as a basis for merit system operations. The recommended organizational pattern for the merit system is that of an unpaid citizen's merit system council and a paid merit system supervisor, as administrator of the examining program. The council, appointed for overlapping terms by the agencies under the merit system, or by the governor on recommendation of these agencies, will be responsible for obtaining public understanding and support of the merit system and will function in somewhat the same capacity for the agencies as a civil service commission.

After the completion of the initial examining program, the merit system supervisor

will probably be a part-time employee in states where the merit system serves less than 1000 employees. The specific qualifications for the supervisor will be determined by the individual state, but recommended qualifications include a background in tests and measurements and experience in public or industrial personnel administration, or college teaching in psychology, public administration, or related fields.

The merit system standards issued by the Social Security Board indicate that all positions in the programs, with certain specified optional exceptions, are to be covered by the rules. The rules are to provide for the establishment and maintenance of classification and pay plans and for the recruitment and appointment of personnel through open competitive examination. Determination is to be made by the state as to whether incumbents should be subjected to open competition, or should take the examination on a qualifying basis with a waiver of minimum requirements of training and experience. Examinations are to be assembled in character, unless in cases of exceptional positions of a scientific or professional character such examinations are not feasible, in which case unassembled examinations may be held.

Under the standards the state agencies are also to make provisions for a competitive or noncompetitive promotional system and to adopt regulations governing furloughs, suspensions and separations, with removals only for cause, and the right of a hearing before an impartial body. A service rating system is to be adopted by each state agency, as are regulations limiting political activity and prohibiting political or religious discrimination.

The standards constitute basic minima for a merit system rather than recommendations for an ideal system. Where there is no consensus about what constitutes good civil service practice, the provisions are left optional. For example, while the state rules are to provide for written charges and a hearing in the event of removal of regular

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employees, the power of the appellate body may be merely recommendatory if the state so desires.

Most of the state agencies are still in the process of developing their merit rules and regulations. A few of them have appointed merit system councils and merit system supervisors, but most of these appointments will be made during the next month or two. There is now, and for a number of months to come there will be, emphasis on the development and installation of classification and pay plans in the state agencies. The Social Security Board is not setting any arbitrary minimum standards of training and experience for positions in the state agencies, but expects each state to develop its own classification plan in realistic fashion and to adopt minimum qualifications which are appropriate for the state. The initial examining programs under the state merit systems will be announced in the spring, with the peak of examining activity probably during the summer months.

THE coordination of the state merit systems will not be attempted by the Social Security Board, but technical consultative service will be available to the states in the development of their merit systems. The State Technical Advisory Service, working with the Social Security Board's Bureaus of Public Assistance and Employment Security, will act as a clearing house for information on merit systems under the Social Security Act.

EACH state system will, of course, have its own peculiar problems. Personnel techniques will have to be adapted to local conditions. It is hoped that in each state there will be active cooperation between

the merit system supervisor and subject-matter consultants in the development and review of test materials. It is expected that provision will be made also for utilization of professional and technical consultants in the establishment of appropriate qualification requirements, the rating of training and experience, and the conduct of oral examinations.

It is difficult enough for a state-wide civil service system to obtain public understanding and support or to develop adequate scientific techniques and procedures. Under some conditions, it may be more difficult for a system serving a single agency or a few agencies to achieve either objective. The merit system councils and supervisors will have to cope with the public relations problems of new merit systems and with the application of the systems to operating agencies in some of which personnel standards have not been high. However, the attitude of most of the administrators and board members in the programs and the developing interest of civic and professional groups make the prospects for cooperative effort promising.

The situation presents a challenge to the public personnel profession to collaborate with these groups and to provide techniques which command respect. It is not enough merely to advocate a merit system; idealism must be supplemented by administrative and technical competence as well as persuasive contacts. At best we will be always approaching and never reaching the goal of democracy and efficiency in public employment, the building of a system of justice on a science of man. But progress can be made if there is critical appreciation by the public of merit system objectives and methods.

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The Use of Microfilm Processes in the Treatment of Test Items

ROBERT I. BIREN

MICROFILMING, or recording data in miniature on film for purposes of record, storage, and/or transportation, has many applications in modern commercial and governmental operations. It has been used for more than ten years by banks and business organizations in maintaining a record of checks, statements, and other transactions. Material which is filed in chronological or serial order and is not subject to change, such as issued insurance policies or documents required to be filed with government officials or agencies, has been treated for some time in this manner.

More recently the possibility of adapting this technique to personnel processes has been considered from a number of points of view. For example, the complete record of examinations including the applications, test papers, and subsidiary documents could be microfilmed a specific time after the completion of the examination. The films obtained would be retained and the original documents destroyed. If desired, prints of the films could be made conveniently and inexpensively for distribution to other agencies.

EXCEPT for special projects such as the one covered here on test items, the proper subjects for condensation into miniatures are obviously the closed records, that is, those no longer subject to change. Open records will naturally be retained in their original form because they must stand in readiness to receive entries until the record is eventually closed by termination. When

a record has been closed, references to it will ordinarily decrease with the passage of time. A point will therefore be reached after which the probable value of the record is less than the cost of housing it. Filming at this point reduces the housing cost to a negligible sum but preserves the value of the record. Film copies of closed records, if made after a reasonable interval, would probably be recognized by most courts as fully equivalent to the originals.¹ This article will concern itself with applications of the process which do not involve substitution of films for original records but which increase the utility and availability of material, specifically, of test items.

MICROFILMING is essentially a reduction process by virtue of which the material on a document or on many documents can be compressed into a very small space. For example, the material contained on one side of six letter-size sheets of paper could be reduced on film to a space of 3" x 13/32". This would involve a standard reduction ratio of 23 to 1.

These miniature film copies are made on rolls of film 16 mm. or 35 mm. wide, these

¹Cases supporting this point of view are:
Martin v. Grand View Independent School Dist. (Texas, 1924) 266 S.W. 607, 611

Leighty v. Murr (Mo. 1916) 186 S.W. 734, 735

Beem v. Beem (Ind. 1923) 141 N.E. 81, 84

Pigg v. Houston & Liggett (Tenn.) 8 Tenn. App. 613

Rountree Motor Co. v. Insurance Co. of North America (Texas 1936) 95 S.W. (2d) 550

Di Palma v. Weinman (N.M. 1911) 121 P. 98, which was sustained in an appeal to the U. S. Supreme Court, and the rule was inferentially approved, 232 U. S. 571, 575

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dimensions being standard in the film industry. The copies are in reductions which may range from 12 to 30 diameters, the pictures being, therefore, truly miniatures with areas from $1/144$ to $1/900$ of the areas of the original records. These ratios also roughly express the resulting reductions in cubical content required for housing or transportation.

The film is of the cellulose acetate type, the so-called "safety film" which avoids nitrate film fire hazard. Thus, the hazard is no greater than with ordinary paper. The National Bureau of Standards Miscellaneous Publication M158, page 1, states, on the basis of tests made by the Bureau, that the film may be expected to be as stable and lasting as paper used for permanent records. The permanence of the film therefore compares favorably with the permanence of ordinary records, and the possibility of reprinting films makes their possible maximum life much longer than that of ordinary paper records.

MINNESOTA PROGRAM AIDED

CIVIL service agencies which maintain or intend to construct files of test items or questions should find this process of considerable aid to them. For example, when the Minnesota State Civil Service Department was established, the immediate necessity for constructing a file of test items became apparent. If the Director of the Minnesota agency had been forced to assemble a staff of personnel examiners of the requisite ability and experience and require them to begin the preparation of test items to build up such a file, certain time limits contained in the Minnesota Civil Service Act in connection with examinations could not possibly have been met. The output of ten such examiners, if as many as ten could have been obtained for such a temporary project, would not have been sufficient to create the needed files in less than twelve to eighteen months. The cost of such a procedure would obviously have been extremely high.

On the other hand, an attempt to assemble such a file of items from the work done in other agencies presents many difficulties. It is not ordinarily feasible to request one or more agencies to submit their files of test items to another agency for duplication; nor can satisfactory results be obtained from working with published tests which are not usually well enough indexed for this purpose and which seldom give either the item answer or source. The expedient of applying microfilming techniques to this problem was introduced by photographing the 60,000 test items in the files of the Michigan State Civil Service Department, and transmitting the films thus obtained to the Minnesota agency. There two projectors were installed and the items are now being duplicated on item cards from the films at the rate of 500 items per day. NYA help is being used for the typing.

THIS application of microfilm procedures suggests that it might be possible for the Civil Service Assembly or some other central organization of testing agencies to obtain test items from many recognized organizations doing testing, and, after editing the items, to prepare a master film on which might appear 150,000 to 200,000 test items.² By using an indexing method such as the Dewey Decimal System, these items could be carefully indexed and individual films of 500 or 1,000 item length in specific vocational fields could be distributed to agencies desiring to build up test item files or preparing for heavy test programs. The recorded items could be duplicated on cards in the agency requesting them over a period of time, and, with successive projects of this sort, agencies could obtain complete item files without having at their disposal

²Such a film would be a negative. Positive prints of the entire film or portions of it could be obtained at a cost of about 4 cents per foot. These positive prints would be circulated, the master negative being retained. There is no practical limit to the number of such prints which can be made from a negative. Periodic revisions, at intervals of perhaps five years, would be necessary to keep material current and to take advantage of new techniques.

skilled technicians for the construction of the items and without a large expenditure of funds. The cost of preparing the films would be recovered with their continued distribution.³

The processes described here are not prohibitively expensive. The recording camera may be rented at a low monthly rate, or the photography may be undertaken by a commercial firm on a contract basis. Items can be recorded at the rate of 12,000 to 15,000 per day, at a cost averaging about one-half cent per item. Recorded items can be duplicated through a combination of typing service and the rental or purchase of a projector or, in smaller agencies, by the use of typing combined with scanning equipment.

THE EQUIPMENT USED

THE primary equipment used in the microfilm process consists of the camera and the projector or other form of reader. Some companies sell this equipment outright while others rent it but will not sell it. The larger microfilm organizations and many small dealers or individuals who own equipment will handle particular jobs on a contract or project basis. Civil service administrators may find that equipment of this type is already owned by the jurisdiction they serve; many libraries and museums own such equipment and some accounting systems require its use. Careful inquiry should be made within the jurisdiction concerning availability of equipment already owned or rented before contact is made with a commercial organization. If such equipment is available, it would probably be sufficient to use the camera upon occasion for recording purposes, although convenience would seem to dictate the wisdom of possessing some sort of reading device.

A partial list of companies and individuals doing this work is given below. Inclu-

sion of firms or individuals in this listing is not a recommendation of the particular service or equipment they offer.

Recordak Corporation, 350 Madison Avenue, New York City; western agencies should contact the Chicago office, 137 North Wabash Avenue; seventeen local outlets covering all sections of the country are listed in the company's literature. This organization, a subsidiary of Eastman Kodak Co., offers complete microfilm service including sale or rental of all equipment, contract service on recording, making positive prints from negative films and reprinting material from films on sensitized paper. Facsimiles obtained by printing from films on special paper are not always satisfactory from the point of view of legibility; they usually require reduction and are quite expensive. As an example of rental cost, the Junior Recordak, which is a combination camera and projector rents for \$12.50 per month. This organization services its rented equipment and will aid in setting up projects.

Photo-Record division of Folmer-Graflex Corporation, Rochester, New York. Microfilm equipment can be purchased or rented from this organization and the Argus reader distributed by this company has some advantages over Recordak readers. Photo-Record is also a division of Eastman Kodak Co., but apparently competes with Recordak in some aspects of the work.

Graphic Service of Boston, Massachusetts, does microfilm work on a contract basis and sells a reader known as the Micro-reader.

National Microfilming Co., South Norwalk, Connecticut, rents cameras for recording use.

R. A. Beveridge, 3844 Standish Ave., Minneapolis, Minnesota, does contract work on all phases of microfilming and travels in the northwest with his own equipment.

Two other companies in the field on which specific data could not be obtained are Pathe Manufacturing Company and Holbrook Microfilm, Inc.

³It is assumed that the cost of assembling, editing, and filming the items would justify a charge for their distribution. The money and convenience value of obtaining such a stock of items is particularly apparent in the case of a newly established civil service agency.

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Agencies contemplating use of microfilm equipment or processes should attempt to discover local concerns which do this work. It is certain that many companies and individuals specializing in this work do little advertising and therefore have not come to the author's attention.

Microfilms may be read by means of scanning rather than projection. In such a case, the material on the film (as test items) could be scanned and recorded on dictating equipment for duplication by a typist, or a typist could type directly after scanning the film. A good $\frac{1}{2}$ inch or $\frac{3}{4}$ inch linen tester can be used for this scanning and would cost less than \$2.00. A plus 20 diopter lens, obtainable at any optical company will accomplish the same purpose. Commercial equipment for this purpose may be purchased from Biblio-films, Washington, D. C.

Experience in working with short answer test items indicates that the material on approximately 8,000 4" x 6" cards can be recorded on one 100-foot roll of 16 mm. film and that a skilled typist working with a standard projector can type and check approximately 300 items per day. Any type-written material which is to be recorded by microfilm processes should be typed with

a good photostatic black ribbon on a white stock.

No personnel administrator or technician should undertake a microfilm project without having consulted a person familiar with the processes and possibilities of the field. Different sizes of film and types of equipment are available and the specific applicable equipment depends upon the microfilm problem involved.

IT SEEMS apparent that this process offers possibilities in inter-jurisdictional cooperation in addition to its value for the purposes outlined above, in that the exchange of test and other material would be greatly facilitated by its use. Some administrators will be interested in the economy of the methods outlined here for filming permanent records, a process which would allow release of needed floor space in agencies now inadequately housed. As new applications of the process are brought to light, and a literature on the subject is developed, enough uses of microfilming in personnel activities may be discovered to justify inclusion of this process in the fundamental equipment of modern personnel agencies.

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Keeping up with Local Government Employment and Pay Rolls

EDWARD R. GRAY

HOW many employees are now on state and local government pay rolls? How much are public pay rolls increasing or decreasing? Is the number of temporary employees in counties as large as usual this summer? To furnish the basis for answering such questions, the United States Bureau of the Census, through its Division of State and Local Government, is inaugurating a comprehensive quarterly canvass of public employment and pay rolls. More than 6500 selected cities, counties, towns, and townships throughout the United States, and all of the states, received questionnaires late in January requesting information for the current month.

COOPERATING AGENCIES

THIS new survey is noteworthy not only because it is the first current collection of information on public employees and pay rolls on a scale large enough to be comparable with the well-established reports from private industry, but also because the canvass represents a consolidation of effort in this particular field by four distinct agencies, each of which had previously been compiling information on the subject. Three of these cooperating agencies are within the federal government, viz., the Bureau of the Census, the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, and the Bureau of Labor Statistics; while the fourth, the International City Managers' Association, is a private organization of municipal officials. Before 1939, each of these four

agencies was collecting a certain amount of information on employment and pay rolls of state and local governments, which was limited in frequency of publication, number of governments covered, or recency of data. In addition, a half dozen other agencies compiled annual or less frequent data on employment in specialized functions, such as education, highways, police, and fire.

The Bureau of the Census had begun in 1936 to supplement its annual financial statistics of cities with an inquiry on number of employees. For 1937 and 1938 reports, this inquiry was extended to states also, and pay-roll totals were added. Functional classifications were carried in 1936 and 1938, and employment status (full-time, part-time, etc.) was used in all three years. Although the data were obtained by Census field agents rather than by a mail questionnaire, satisfactory information on the subject in some cities and states was found to be impossible to compile within the limited time available for field work on each report.

The annual canvass of public pay rolls of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce was carried on as part of its study of national income since 1929. National estimates of state and local government employees and pay rolls were made each year on the basis of returns received from sample canvasses of states, cities, and counties. Such national estimates for states, for cities, and for all local governments, were the most comprehensive figures available on the sub-

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ject, but information for separate reporting units was not published.

In 1934, the International City Managers' Association began an annual canvass of cities, which, after its first year, included all cities having over 10,000 population. Employment and pay-roll data from these annual canvasses have been published for each city separately in the successive issues of the *Municipal Year Book*. An important characteristic of the *Municipal Year Book* data is the specific indication of the city functions or departments not included in the respondents' figures.

Neither the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce nor the International City Managers' Association has requested the number and pay rolls of school employees, since such information is already provided by the Office of Education and the National Education Association. Furthermore, school data are seldom obtainable from a central city or county office, even when personnel information for other departments is available centrally. If one leaves school-employee data out of account, the experience of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce and the International City Managers' Association gives evidence that a well-developed mail canvass is a reasonably satisfactory method of obtaining current information on fluctuations in the number of employees and amount of pay rolls of state and local governments. Such current mail canvasses would be even more satisfactory if comprehensive data, compiled by field enumerators under close supervision, were available for some representative period to serve as a basis for checking ratios and determining limits of unchallenged credibility in the mail reports originating in many different offices under most diverse conditions.

FORTUNATELY, this basic field study is now being supplied by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, which is the fourth important agency cooperating in the new venture. In 1938, the Bureau of Labor Statistics

sponsored a nation-wide works project to compile, along with other information, the number of employees and amount of pay rolls of state and local governments for the decade 1929-1938. The data to be obtained in this works project are more extensive than any heretofore attempted on the subject. Not only will they show employee and pay-roll information for separate governmental functions, including education, for the whole 10-year period, but the data as published will be by months. Furthermore, the sample of governmental units included in the works project is a generous one. In addition to state governments and cities of over 100,000 population previously canvassed by the Bureau of the Census and the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, the Bureau of Labor Statistics works project is compiling data for half of the cities having from 25,000 to 50,000 population, fifteen per cent of the cities from 10,000 to 25,000 population, and ten per cent of the cities from 5,000 to 10,000 population. Included also will be approximately 200 rural and 365 urban counties, and a sample of school districts, townships, and other minor civil divisions.

THE new Census survey proposes to continue most of the important features of all four of the previous canvasses. Such features include the prompt publication and identification of data for larger individual units of government, of the International City Managers' Association; the comprehensive sample and publication of figures for periods less than a year, of the Bureau of Labor Statistics; the estimates of national totals and indexes of change from period to period, of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce; and the functional and employment-status classifications, of the previous Census inquiries. In some of these cases, the exact techniques used in the past may not be continued. Consultations between the agencies and others interested will be used to devise the best methods for the new survey.

EMPLOYMENT INFORMATION REQUESTED

INFORMATION on number of employees for the first quarterly canvass is requested for both general governmental functions and public-service enterprises under the following classifications:

1. Total
2. Permanent full-time
3. Permanent part-time
4. Temporary and other

In addition, "if employee and pay roll figures for any separate functions are easily available," they are requested; and a list of functions appropriate to the governmental unit addressed (for example, "police," "fire," "streets and highways") is appended. If figures for separate functions are not easily available, symbols are requested to indicate the functions included in the total number of employees reported.

From recent experiments with different types of employment-status classifications for government employees, it appears that employees having a permanent or indefinite tenure are most satisfactorily reported, while data on temporary, seasonal, and emergency workers are especially elusive. For purposes of attempting to calculate average compensation per employee, which is practicable only for permanent employees or for "positions" (i.e., employees on an equivalent full-time basis), the separation of full-time and part-time employees is necessary. Various rule-of-thumb methods for converting the number of part-time employees into full-time employees are in common use, although there seems to be no agreement as to the most satisfactory ratio, even for particular functions.

Officials engaged also in outside employment are included as "part-time employees." Employees of contractors and WPA workers are excluded entirely. School employees are also omitted.

PAY ROLL INFORMATION REQUESTED

THE most practicable pay roll information to correspond with the total number of employees reported is the amount of

pay roll for the month ended on the date for which the number of employees is reported. Such monthly pay roll information is available from a good governmental accounting system if provision is made for an object classification of expenditures. Even where a total monthly figure for salaries and wages is not obtainable from financial records, a reasonably accurate estimate can be made on the basis of the principal pay rolls for the last half-month, since most governmental units use a semimonthly pay roll period.

For the new Census survey, pay roll figures are requested for each major function separately if such data are easily available. There is no attempt, however, to divide pay rolls according to the employment status of the payees.

Only payments made by the governmental unit covered are to be included. Excluded are commissions or fees received individually and not paid over to the central treasury, and perquisites such as uniforms, meals, and lodging, that are customarily received by employees in certain types of work.

In the first canvass, of January 1940, a supplementary question asks for the actual or estimated amount of pay rolls for the last calendar or fiscal year. Such data permit comparison with previous annual data of the Census, the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, and the International City Managers' Association.

NUMBER AND TYPES OF GOVERNMENTS COVERED

THE extent of the new quarterly survey in terms of number and types of governments covered will make it the most comprehensive mail canvass yet attempted on the subject. The mailing sample, that is, the addressees of the Census forms, includes all states, and all cities having a population of over 5,000, all counties having a population of over 50,000 or containing a city with a population of over 25,000, somewhat over half of the remaining counties, twenty-five

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per cent of the incorporated cities and towns between 2,500 and 5,000 population, ten per cent of incorporated places having less than 2,500 population, and about two and one-half per cent of the townships in the North Central and Middle Atlantic states. The total number of governmental units sent forms in January 1940 was 6,583. This total is made up as follows:

States	48
Cities having over 5,000 population.....	1,814
Cities having 2,500 to 5,000 population..	333
Incorporated places under 2,500.....	1,363
Large counties	422
Other counties	1,657
Towns in New England, New York, and Wisconsin	312
Townships in North Central and Middle Atlantic States	634

Mailing lists were furnished by the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, the Civil Service Assembly, and the International City Managers' Association; and the Bureau of Labor Statistics prepared a list of counties included in its works project.

Slight variations were made in the form and instructions to adapt them to the different types of governmental units addressed.

TIMING OF SURVEYS

DATA will be asked for the months of January, April, July, and October, but respondents have the option of substituting information for the previous month if figures for the month just closed are not available. Questionnaires will usually be in the hands of respondents within a few days after the end of the month to be reported.

FORM OF PUBLICATION

ONE of the most important features of the new Census survey is prompt publication of results. Preliminary figures will be published about two months after the questionnaires are sent out.

Information for each of the larger governmental units reporting will be published separately, and composite data will be made available for somewhat homogeneous groups of smaller units. Figures for individual small units, however, will be available at the Bureau of the Census; and if there is sufficient demand for such information, it may be published.

Beginning with the second quarterly canvass, a chain index will be started to show the changes in employment and pay rolls by types of government from quarter to quarter. For a chain index, only the figures for governments reporting for each of two consecutive quarters will be used.

RESULTS OF THE FIRST QUARTER'S CANVASS

BEFORE March 1, 1940, replies giving some or all of the data requested had been received from over 3,250 governments, or about one half of those receiving the original request. Nearly two-thirds of the states, 70 per cent of the cities with over 10,000 population, and almost as large a proportion of other cities and larger counties had responded.

On the whole, the first quarter's canvass has shown that a current mail survey of state and local government employees and pay rolls is feasible. A similar method has been used successfully for many years to measure changes in business employment and pay rolls. The quarterly canvass of state and local governments will secure significant information on the variations in employment by seasons, by different types and sizes of governmental units, by functions, and by employment status. Such information will be most useful for public administrators and citizens who realize that government is at present one of the most important businesses of the country.

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Notifying Applicants of Test Results

LOUIS J. KROEGER

KEEPING the good will of candidates disqualified in any stage of testing is one of the most difficult and important public relation problems of a public personnel agency. A notice of "failure" is a bitter pill for any competitor to swallow. The ideal of a detailed personalized message to each successful candidate is impossible for most agencies because of the expense involved. A step toward making notices more complete and personal, while retaining the economy of a mechanical operation has been taken by the California State Personnel Board, which now uses an Addressograph to print an explanation to each competitor of why he has not qualified in an examination.

When a Californian applies for a state civil service examination he fills out a block of five cards (each of which is 3" x 5") which accompany his application form. One is the "Notification of Test Results." The candidate supplies his name, address, and the examination title on the face of the card. The back of the card is reserved for information regarding the candidate's final test results. After the test results are recorded on the card, it is mailed to him in a "window" envelope.

One of the earlier forms of notification cards used by California is reproduced in Figure 1. If a competitor was unsuccessful, one of the eight reasons listed on this card was checked. The principal disadvantage of this notification system, however, was that in five of the items the individual was notified that he had *failed* in some respect. The

word "failed" always has an extremely unpleasant connotation. A carpenter who has successfully practiced his trade for twenty years cannot help being irritated and somewhat indignant when he is told that he has "failed" the state carpentry test. His immediate reaction is to defend his abilities and qualifications, and to criticize the examination. As a matter of fact, to say that he has "failed" is inaccurate as well as unfair. He has merely failed to qualify high enough among all the competitors to be included on the list from which the state will draw new appointees in that class.

As a first step toward improving the notification the card shown in Figure 2 was developed. On this card the words "unsuccessful" and "failed" were avoided. Instead a competitor was told that he "did not qualify" because he did not meet previously established standards. Although the new card somewhat softened the unpleasant information, it was still abrupt and incomplete. Failure was unmistakably implied despite the fact that the word itself was not used.

IN 1937 a revision of the State Civil Service Act included a provision that "the Board may limit, to suit the needs of the service, the number of candidates passing the examination who shall be placed on the eligible list in the order in which such candidates pass such examination." With this new provision it is no longer necessary to set absolute passing marks; rather it is possible to select a limited number of the

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highest ranking competitors for a place on the eligible list. The number selected depends upon the estimated need for employees in that class as well as the examination results.

The notification card was therefore again revised as shown in Figure 3. The majority of unsuccessful competitors were notified that "your final score in relation to your competitors does not place you among the number set under authority of Section 89, Civil Service Act, as the limit for this eligible list." With this new statement a person was not told that he had failed nor even that he had not met an established standard. There were simply too many other competitors who, because of more experience or education, stood higher in the test.

The card shown in Figure 3 still was not adequate. Too few of the disqualifying reasons were included in the four statements. Special statements frequently had to be typed in on the bottom of the card. Too often there was not a sufficient number of fully qualified competitors to put the full number, previously announced as the limit, on the eligible list. Yet those not on the list were still told "your final score in relation to your competitors does not place you among the number set under authority of Section 89, Civil Service Act, as the limit for this eligible list." Quite naturally they found it difficult to understand this notice when the full limit had not been qualified on the list.

THE NEW PROCEDURE

THE most recently developed plan, although still far from perfect, overcomes some of the abruptness and inaccuracy of the old notices, and at the same time is so mechanically routine that the preparation of the usual 2,000 to 3,000 notices a month is facilitated.

The plan consists of six-line explanations covering each of twelve disqualifying reasons, each of which is set up on an Addressograph plate. When examination results are ready to be announced, the notification

cards for unsuccessful competitors, which have already been addressed by the individual, are completed by adding the appropriate addressographed message of why the competitor's name was not included on the eligible list. A machine originally designed to print addresses, as the name implies, has been satisfactorily adapted to the printing of messages instead.

The cards are run off on a style 600 Addressograph with six-line plates. The plates are cut by the Addressograph Company from copy furnished by the personnel agency. A facsimile of the Executive Officer's signature reproduced by a photoengraving agency, has been placed on a special plate that may be attached to any one of the notices.

Figure 4 shows the form of notice now being used. If the candidate is successful in the test, the appropriate space is checked and his test score and rank on the list are entered. If he is unsuccessful, that fact is checked and the appropriate one of the following addressographed explanations is added in the space provided:

1. Your final average on all parts of the examination in relation to your competitors did not rank you among the number established as the limit for this eligible list, as announced on the examination bulletin.
2. You did not meet the physical standards established for this class and published in the examination bulletin. These standards apply equally to all competitors and no exceptions can be made.
3. Your performance in the physical test was below the standard required to place you among the number set as the limit for this eligible list as announced on the examination bulletin.
4. Your performance in the practical demonstration test was below the required standard of proficiency.
5. You did not take the required medical examination. Post card instructions regarding the medical examination were mailed to you more than ten days ago.
6. The report of your medical examination shows that your physical condition does not meet the established standard of good health and freedom from disabling defects.
7. Your final average on all parts of the examination was not high enough to give you the 80% required to rank you among the number established as the limit for this eligible list, as announced on the examination bulletin.
8. You did not appear for interview with the qualifications appraisal board in response to interview notice previously mailed you. The interviewing board cannot reconvene to interview candidates after eligible list has been established.
9. Your rating by the qualifications appraisal board was below the required 70%. Appeals based on allega-

NOTIFYING APPLICANTS OF TEST RESULTS

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STATE OF CALIFORNIA STATE PERSONNEL BOARD NOTIFICATION OF TEST RESULTS	
Notice of Standing	
<p>() You were successful in this examination, attaining an average percentage of _____ and you stand _____ upon the eligible list at this time.</p> <p>() You were unsuccessful in this examination for the reason checked below:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> () 1. You failed to attain the required rating in the written examination. () 2. You received a rating of less than 60% in the subject of _____. () 3. You received a rating of less than 70% in the subject of _____. () 4. Your rating in the oral examination was below the required 70%. () 5. You failed to appear for the oral examination. () 6. You failed in the practical test. () 7. You failed to take the required physical examination. () 8. You failed to attain the required efficiency rating. () 9. _____ 	
<small>STATE CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION 1970 E. 11TH ST. CALIFORNIA STATE PRINTING OFFICE</small>	

FIG. 1.—ORIGINAL NOTICE, NOW ABANDONED.

STATE OF CALIFORNIA STATE PERSONNEL BOARD NOTIFICATION OF TEST RESULTS	
Notice of Standing	
<p>() YOU WERE SUCCESSFUL IN THE TESTS FOR THE POSITION, THE TITLE OF WHICH IS ENTERED ON THE REVERSE SIDE OF THIS CARD</p> <p>() YOU WERE UNQUALIFIED IN THE TESTS FOR THIS POSITION BECAUSE</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> YOUR RATING IN THE WRITTEN TESTS WAS BELOW THE REQUIRED 70% <input type="checkbox"/> YOUR RATING BY THE QUALIFICATIONS APPRAISAL BOARD WAS BELOW THE REQUIRED 70% <input type="checkbox"/> YOUR RATING WAS LESS THAN 70% IN _____ <input type="checkbox"/> YOUR RATING IN THE DEMONSTRATION TEST WAS BELOW THE REQUIRED 70% <input type="checkbox"/> YOU FAILED TO APPEAR FOR THE DEMONSTRATION TEST <input type="checkbox"/> YOU FAILED TO APPEAR FOR APPRAISEL OF EDUCATION, EXPERIENCE AND PERSONAL QUALIFICATIONS <input type="checkbox"/> _____ 	
<small>STATE PERSONNEL BOARD</small>	

FIG. 2.—FIRST REVISION, NOW ABANDONED.

STATE OF CALIFORNIA STATE PERSONNEL BOARD NOTIFICATION OF TEST RESULTS	
Notice of Standing	
<p>() YOU QUALIFIED IN THE TESTS FOR THE POSITION, THE TITLE OF WHICH IS ENTERED ON THE REVERSE SIDE OF THIS CARD</p> <p>() YOU DID NOT QUALIFY IN THE TESTS FOR THIS POSITION BECAUSE</p> <p>() YOU DID NOT QUALIFY IN THE TESTS FOR THIS POSITION INDICATED BELOW—</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> YOUR FINAL SCORE IN RELATION TO YOUR COMPETITORS' DID NOT PLACE YOU AMONG THE NUMBER SET UNDER AUTHORITY OF SECTION 89, CIVIL SERVICE ACT, AS THE LIMIT FOR THIS ELIGIBLE LIST. <input type="checkbox"/> YOU WERE DISQUALIFIED IN _____ <input type="checkbox"/> YOU DID NOT APPEAR FOR THE DEMONSTRATION TEST <input type="checkbox"/> YOU DID NOT APPEAR FOR APPRAISEL OF EDUCATION, EXPERIENCE AND PERSONAL QUALIFICATIONS <input type="checkbox"/> _____ 	
<small>STATE PERSONNEL BOARD EXECUTIVE OFFICER</small>	

FIG. 3.—SECOND REVISION, NOW ABANDONED.

STATE OF CALIFORNIA STATE PERSONNEL BOARD NOTIFICATION OF TEST RESULTS	
Notice of Standing	
<p>() YOU WERE SUCCESSFUL IN THE TESTS FOR THE POSITION, THE TITLE OF WHICH IS ENTERED ON THE REVERSE SIDE OF THIS CARD</p> <p>() YOU WERE UNQUALIFIED IN THE TESTS FOR THIS POSITION BECAUSE</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> YOUR RATING IN THE WRITTEN TESTS WAS BELOW THE REQUIRED 70% <input type="checkbox"/> YOUR RATING BY THE QUALIFICATIONS APPRAISAL BOARD WAS BELOW THE REQUIRED 70% <input type="checkbox"/> YOUR RATING WAS LESS THAN 70% IN _____ <input type="checkbox"/> YOUR RATING IN THE DEMONSTRATION TEST WAS BELOW THE REQUIRED 70% <input type="checkbox"/> YOU FAILED TO APPEAR FOR THE DEMONSTRATION TEST <input type="checkbox"/> YOU FAILED TO APPEAR FOR APPRAISEL OF EDUCATION, EXPERIENCE AND PERSONAL QUALIFICATIONS <input type="checkbox"/> _____ 	
<small>STATE PERSONNEL BOARD</small>	

FIG. 4.—FORM NOW IN USE.

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tions of fraud, bias or erroneous interpretation of minimum qualifications will be heard by the Personnel Board if filed not later than _____. (A date thirty days after date of mailing notice is stamped in.)

10. The formula rating of your education and experience was below the required 70%. Appeals based on allegations of fraud, bias, or erroneous interpretation of minimum qualifications will be heard by the Personnel Board if filed not later than _____. (A date thirty days after date of mailing notice is stamped in.)

11. The formula rating of your education and experience was below the required 85%. Appeals based on allegations of fraud, bias, or erroneous interpretation of minimum qualifications will be heard by the Personnel Board if filed not later than _____. (A date thirty days after date of mailing notice is stamped in.)

12. Your written test score was not high enough to give you the required 80% and rank you among the number established as the limit for this eligible list, as announced on the examination bulletin.

13. Your written test score was not high enough to give you the required 70% and rank you among the number established as the limit for this eligible list, as announced on the examination bulletin.

The physical limitations of the six-line plates reduce these statements to such

brevity that they occasionally prove inadequate, resulting in some misunderstanding. However, several important advantages have already resulted from this procedure, including the following:

- 1) The notice can be more definite, complete, and at the same time more courteous.
- 2) The individual is not unnecessarily confused by a list of other possible disqualifying factors.
- 3) The concise, accurate notices reduce the additional correspondence formerly necessary to explain in more detail the too brief and general statements.
- 4) Its flexibility permits an indefinite number of changes with small additional cost.

Louis J. Kroeger is Executive Officer of the California State Personnel Board and a member of the Executive Council of the Civil Service Assembly.

Progress in the Selection of Patrolmen

NORMAN J. POWELL

IN 1939 the New York City Civil Service Commission administered a written test to 29,934 applicants for the position of Patrolman. The pass mark, set to meet the numerical and qualitative needs of the service, was fixed after applications had been received, but before the test was administered, at the mark of the man ranking 3,600 in the order of comparative rating. A number of tie scores swelled the number passing to 3,637.

CONSTRUCTION OF THE WRITTEN TEST

THE frame of reference about which the written test was constructed involved three major considerations. It was necessary, first, that the test be easily administered and expeditiously rated. In consequence, the examination consisted of 100 five-option multiple choice items given in a single sitting of three and one half hours. Instructions were entirely in writing. There was provision for a central signal only to begin the test and a second to indicate its conclusion so that no judgmental latitude was allowed for monitors (in individual classrooms in the nineteen high schools used) to make possible mistakes.

Candidates marked answers on International Business Machines' answer sheets to enable scoring by machine. Use of these special answer sheets and the rental of two machines made it possible to rate the written test in three weeks.

It was essential that the test measure candidates' capacities rather than their stock of cram information or knowledge of

matters either trivial or more appropriately learned in the municipal police school after appointment to the job. A definite attempt was made to couch items in police terminology and yet have no item be answerable on the basis of special cram preparation or other experiences not common to the whole or almost the whole group of candidates. There was an effort to have the questions appear to be practical while aiming to measure such attributes as judgment, reasoning ability, understanding of public affairs, comprehension of verbal or mathematical matter, and knowledge of word meanings. Vocabulary items were included because of their known substantial relationship to intellectual level.

Question "2" of the examination, the key answer to which is "D," illustrates the police framework of the items permitting, nevertheless, the selection of the best option without prior "coaching" or technical information. This question was phrased as follows:

2. Suppose that while you are patrolling your post you observe a young man run out of a liquor store situated 10 feet from you and dash up the street away from you. Blood is issuing from what is probably a cut on the young man's forehead. Another man whom you know to own the liquor store runs out of his shop, cries "Stop thief," and starts to give chase to the young man. You should

(A) intercept the owner of the store to find out what has happened (B) commandeer a passing car and, when sufficiently close to the fugitive, shoot (C) take careful aim at the fugitive and shoot from where you are (D) blow your whistle, give chase, shout a warning to the fugitive to halt, and shoot if your warning is unheeded and there is danger of escape by the fugitive (E) shout to the fugitive to halt, request the driver of a passing car to procure assistance from the nearest precinct and start on foot after the fugitive so that you will be prepared if he enters one of the buildings on the street.

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A THIRD significant consideration guiding the test construction was the necessity for differentiating among passing candidates. An intensive publicity campaign had resulted in the wide dissemination of information regarding the existence of splendid career opportunities in the police department. In consequence, not only were a large number of applications received, but included among the candidates were many young men with college and even graduate school training. The top applicants possessed superior ability and it was required that the test be sufficiently difficult to result in a satisfactory spread of scores among the passing group. The examination would, for example, have been virtually a qualifying one if the total range of passing marks had been between 95% and 100%.

On the other hand, the public relations aspect of examinations is important. Two issues are pertinent here. It would be ridiculous to have the pass mark fall at such a level as to have a mark like 90% be a failure. Yet the test cannot be so difficult as to lead to the conclusion, even if unwarranted, that the abilities required for passing are inordinately great. The distribution of passing test scores which actually resulted runs from 73% to 96%, a range close to ideal.

ADDITIONAL phases of the written test are worthy of attention. The front page of the examination booklet carried "A Personal Note" signed by the three Civil Service Commissioners, encouraging candidates to read questions carefully, to think before answering, and to be careful. The message "*Good Luck to You!*" appeared at the end of the note.

The second aspect is the appeals procedure and the availability of questions and answers to candidates. The official tentative key answers were published in the Commission's *Civil Service Bulletin* and also announced over the radio on the Tuesday following the Saturday of the test administration. Candidates were given two weeks in which to file appeals from the tentative

key answers. At the time of the test, applicants were permitted to copy their answers in the question booklet and to take away their questions and answers from the examination room.

THE COMPETITIVE PHYSICAL TEST

THE candidates who survived the written test were given a competitive physical test greatly revised from the test which had formerly been in effect. Prior to the present test, the physical examination had been designed to measure strength and included tests of shoulder, leg, arm and hand muscles. There were two principal defects of this set-up. Such essential attributes as agility and endurance were ignored. In addition, many of the sub-tests yielded scores closely bunched between 95% and 100% so that effective differentiation was impossible among relatively superior candidates.

Upon the basis of experimentation which employed members of the Police Department as subjects, a new series of tests was evolved. The new examination was divided into three parts testing strength, endurance, and agility, weighted 3, 4, and 3 respectively. The strength test, consisted of a series of dumbbell lifts with the right and left hands separately. The weights ranged between 50 and 75 pounds, the percentage mark awarded to the candidate being determined by the weight lifted. The pass mark of 70% was set at a lift of 50 pounds with the favored hand and 50 pounds with the other hand. The maximum rating of 100% was obtained by lifting 75 pounds with one hand and 60 with the other.

Abdominal and dummy lifts were the other two events in the strength test. The weight in the abdominal lift ranged between 30 and 40 pounds and the dummy to be lifted and carried varied between 140 and 170 pounds.

The second part of the physical examination consisted of an endurance run of one mile. The minimum acceptable time of 7 minutes was given the pass mark of 70% and records of 5 minutes and 30 seconds or less

were awarded 100%. Intermediate times received ratings between the pass mark and the maximum possible rating.

The third part, an agility test, comprised a series of consecutive events rated on the basis of the total time required for completion. From the starting mark the candidate had to run 10 yards and perform a 10 foot broad jump. He then continued 10 yards to a 3'6" hurdle and proceeded 10 yards further to an 8' tight board fence which he had to mount. There he had to reach for a horizontal ladder which was 5' higher than the fence, travel hand over hand on each rung to the end of the ladder, swing around and climb down the supporting ladder to the floor. Thereupon, there was a run of 5 yards to a 4'6" vaulting box followed by a 10 yard run to the finish line. The entire distance was about 50 yards. The agility test as a whole was rated on a time basis. The slowest acceptable time of 35 seconds received a rating of 70%. Faster times were rated higher, up to a maximum of 100% for 20 seconds or less. A general average of 70% was required in the physical examination in order to pass so that ratings below the general average pass mark in parts of the test did not necessarily cause failure.

A COMPLETE set of rules was established and made public prior to the examination. There was a penalty, for example, of 4% and a new start for knocking down the hurdle or for perpetrating any other rule violation. Well in advance, also, of the physical examination the Commission secured the cooperation of the Department of Parks in making available to applicants, without charge, training facilities in public athletic fields and other places for the test.

One of the noteworthy aspects of the physical test administration was the use of a device useful both from a public relations angle and from the viewpoint of promoting technical adequacy. The outstanding college

athletic coaches of the Metropolitan area served as judges in the rating of candidates. Included were such figures as Benny Friedman, City College football coach and former All-American star; A. B. Nixon, graduate manager of athletics at New York University; Emil von Elling, New York University track coach; George Spitz, Queens College track coach and former holder of the world's indoor high jump record; Glen Carberry and Earl Walsh, line coaches of the Fordham University eleven; Walter McLaughlin, director of athletics at St. John's University; Brendon Battle, Manhattan College back-field football coach; Ed Kelleher, Fordham University basketball mentor; and S. J. Connor, coach of basketball and baseball at Brooklyn College.

At the time of the physical test a thorough medical examination as well was given involving minute scrutiny of applicants by Commission physicians. Of 2560 persons taking the medical and physical tests, 208 were rejected in the medical examination and 441 failed the physical examination.

FINALLY, mention may be made of a recruiting device which gave rise to a court action which was carried to the highest court in New York State, the Court of Appeals, where a notable victory for merit system principles was won. The Commission had announced in the advertisement for the Patrolman position that additional credits up to a maximum of 2.8% in the written test and 1.2% in the physical examination would be awarded to persons who had completed college courses relevant to police work or who possessed organized college or professional athletic training. Since the weight of the written test was 7 and that of the physical was 3, the increment for any candidate could not exceed 2.32% in the final rating. When challenged in the courts, this procedure was upheld by the Court of Appeals.

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Survey of Assembly Services to Members

ISMAR BARUCH

THE nature of the organization of the Civil Service Assembly makes inevitable a wide variation in the needs and desires of its agency and individual members. This variation is reflected in everyday requests upon the Assembly's small Headquarters Staff for services of different types, involving all fields of public personnel administration. It is also manifested in suggestions made to the Executive Council from time to time. Accordingly, after the Headquarters Office had been established for about three and one-half years, the Executive Council attempted to obtain a census on the kinds of services desired by the Assembly's membership as a whole.

At a meeting held at Chicago on November 18, 1938, the following resolution was adopted by the Executive Council:

RESOLVED, That the President appoint a subcommittee of the Executive Council to develop means of determining services desired by members of the Assembly, with a view to making recommendations to the Council for the improvement of services rendered by the Assembly to its members.

In accordance with the foregoing resolution, the President thereupon appointed a subcommittee on Services to Members, consisting of the following Council members: William Brownrigg; C. L. Campbell; and Ismar Baruch, *Chairman*.

A QUESTIONNAIRE and an accompanying explanatory letter, designed to determine the kinds of services desired by

members, were approved by the Executive Council at its ninth meeting at Chicago on December 26, 1938, and were mailed to all members of the Assembly on December 31, 1938.

Forty-six questionnaires—a 50% response at that time—were returned by active agency members and fifteen—a 20% response—by active individual members. Responses from affiliate and student members were too few to warrant tabulation.

In this brief summary attention is called to certain of the points on which definite group reactions of agency members are indicated.

TEST SERVICE

STRONG emphasis is placed on the necessity of enlarging and improving the test service now rendered by the Headquarters Office. At present this service is primarily that of a clearing house for the exchange of test material placed on file with the Headquarters Office by the members of the Assembly for the use of other members.

A considerable number of members feel that both the volume and quality of the test material on file in the Headquarters Office should be increased. About half of the agencies send copies of their tests to the Headquarters Office and about half request test material or information about tests several times during a year. In most instances the test material submitted by the Headquarters Office was adequate but in some cases the material was too meager or was unsatisfactory because of lack of keys

or because no study or research was made by the Headquarters Office on the tests sent out. The remedy in the opinion of a sizeable group of agencies is for staff members of the Assembly located in the Headquarters Office and working in cooperation with selected agencies or persons to develop standardized tests, to do test research and evaluation, and to make the test service a technical service rather than a clearing house service only.

IT WAS evident from the responses that the practical phases of an Assembly test service would be difficult to work out. Several agency members emphasized that the integrity of test material would be difficult to safeguard when distributed widely. Others indicated that it probably was necessary to finance a test service in such a way as to make it self-supporting.

A special Test Service Committee appointed by President Emery E. Olson will study and report on this problem. The Committee consists of James Hard, Director of Personnel, Jefferson County Personnel Board, *Chairman*; George W. Lumm, Commissioner, Toledo Civil Service Commission; Walter V. Majewsky, Personnel Director and Secretary, Cincinnati Civil Service Commission; Willard Parker, Personnel Officer, Farm Credit Administration of St. Louis; and Donald J. Sublette, Principal Personnel Examiner, Detroit Civil Service Commission. By resolution adopted by the Executive Council, the Committee is directed, among other things, to explore procedures for safeguarding the integrity of test material in the processes of distribution and for financing a test service.

PUBLICATIONS

RANKING with test service in interest, publications activities, according to the membership, should receive more emphasis.

There is a strong demand for more technical articles, for articles on techniques, procedures on day to day problems, for discussion of what other agencies are doing, and how their procedures—particularly new

or improved procedures—are working out. The subject matter of these technical articles, in order of preference, would have to do with tests, classification, service ratings, pay, laws and court decisions, training, and other subjects. Almost the same order of subjects is indicated for pamphlets, special bulletins, and monographs.

News Letter. The parts of the *News Letter* having the greatest appeal, in order of preference, are general news, personnel front, book reviews, and bibliography.

Papers of Regional Conferences. With few exceptions, the membership desires that the best papers and discussions of regional conferences be published in some suitable manner.

Technical Journal. With few exceptions, the membership expressed a desire for the publication of a journal covering the administrative and technical phases of public personnel administration. According to the view of most of the agencies, this journal would emphasize administrative and technical problems and would include articles on testing, classification, pay, service ratings, in-service transactions, training, etc., and definite practices and procedures, or the results of research or developmental studies. Some agencies mentioned book abstracts or reviews.

As the result of this definite reaction, *Public Personnel Review* has come into being.

INQUIRY SERVICE

FOR the most part the Inquiry Service conducted by the Headquarters Office has proved to be satisfactory. However, there were a number of indications of inadequacy, particularly because of the lack of criticism or evaluation. This is a fair record, in view of the difficulty of endeavoring, with a small staff, to cover all kinds of inquiries adequately.

It is not feasible at the moment to staff the Headquarters Office with a sufficient number of technical specialists. Partially in lieu of this, a phase of inquiry service has been developed which the membership,

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with a few exceptions, definitely approved. This is a plan whereby an agency writing one letter of inquiry to the Headquarters Office will receive several replies: one from the Headquarters Office and others from members of the Assembly who are specialists on the question presented, or who are in a position to obtain definite information quickly for the inquirer. One agency suggested that the information thus secured in the Headquarters Office be digested and correlated by a brief statement or digest in the *News Letter* or in *Public Personnel Review*.

BIBLIOGRAPHIC SERVICE

THREE was almost unanimous approval of a plan of bibliographic service under which publications or articles in the field of personnel administration would be indexed in accordance with a standard subject matter classification.

VISITS

FOR the most part the members of the Assembly look with considerable favor upon visits from members of the Headquarters Office. The membership as a whole felt that the visits would not be valuable unless the representative could spend a minimum of one-half day or a day in the agency.

COMMITTEE ACTIVITIES

ACONSIDERABLE portion of the members felt that they were not being kept adequately informed concerning the activities of the Civil Service Assembly committees and they suggested that progress of the work of these committees be reported in the *News Letter* quarterly or oftener. Recent numbers of the *News Letter* have been more informative of the work of the Executive Council and Assembly committees.

COOPERATION WITH OTHER GROUPS

FOR the most part cooperative efforts with other groups have provided help in developing group interest, support, and understanding of personnel administration in local areas. A few emphasize that the major responsibility is that of the local agency and that the Headquarters Office should be concerned primarily with the pioneer areas and coordination of local movements.

At its December meeting, the Executive Council referred some of the phases of this matter to a special Committee on Professional, Technical, and Trade Employment Standards. As announced in the February, 1940, *News Letter* (col. 1, page 4) the Committee consists of Clifford N. Amsden, Secretary and Chief Examiner, Los Angeles County Civil Service Commission, *Chairman*; C. L. Campbell, Director of Classification, New York State Civil Service Commission; Henry F. Hubbard, Staff Assistant, Federal Council of Personnel Administration; W. H. Stead, Director, United States Employment Service; and Leonard D. White, Professor of Public Administration, University of Chicago. The committee will also include a public works administrator and a public welfare administrator.

REGIONAL AND ANNUAL MEETINGS

MOST agencies prefer regional and annual meetings of the conference, open forum, panel, or problem clinic type where: (a) sufficient time is allowed for more widespread participation of individuals on the general exchange of ideas, (b) the meeting is broken up into smaller groups, (c) the discussion consists of concrete discussions of actual experience in working out problems, particularly the vexatious ones occurring in daily practice, and (d) formal papers are held to the minimum. The San Francisco meeting was of this type.

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COURT DECISIONS

EDITED BY H. ELIOT KAPLAN

I

A PROBLEM which has been a matter of increasing concern not only to legislatures, civil service commissions and public employees, but to the public as well, is whether or not the legislature or the civil service commission may "cover in" incumbents of positions who have been appointed without examination, where the positions had never been formally classified in the competitive class and where the civil service rules are extended and applied for the first time.

Considerable confusion and misunderstanding has apparently developed since the New York Court of Appeals decided the case of *Palmer v. Board of Education of the Union Free School District of the Town of Geddes*, 276 N. Y. 222, 11 N. E., (2d) 887 (Nov. 1937). There the court held that a carpenter in a local school district to which the civil service rules were deemed not to apply, and who had been appointed without any examination, either competitive or qualifying, could not recover for alleged wrongful discharge, since his original appointment was not in compliance with the state constitutional provision (Article V, Section 6) which requires appointments to be made after competitive examination wherever practicable.

That the court did not decide the "covering in" issue in the *Palmer* case, would seem to be quite clear from its statement in the opinion that "we decide only that a person holding an administrative position by appointment or contract of employment without compliance with the provisions of the constitution has no legal right which is violated by a discharge. . . . There can be no right to make an appointment or contract which would create a legal right of tenure where the constitution forbids the crea-

tion of such a right."

However, this case appears to have been relied on by employees appointed without examination, as requiring the Commission to extend the civil service rules and blanket such employees into the competitive class without competitive examinations. In the recent case of *Booker v. Reavy*, 281 N. Y., 318, 23 N. E. (2d) 9 (Oct. 1939), maintenance employees of a local school district who had been appointed without examination, sought to compel the New York State Civil Service Commission to extend the rules of the Commission to their positions; to place them in the competitive class of the classified service without further examination; and to have declared unconstitutional Section 10 of the Civil Service Law which requires the Governor's approval before the Civil Service Commission may extend the civil service rules to counties and other civil divisions of the state, as it may find practicable. The Commission had already passed such a resolution extending its rules to the positions of the petitioners, but the Governor had refused to approve it.

THE Court of Appeals dismissed the appeal and denied the petitioners' application. In answer to the petitioners' reliance on the *Palmer* case, the court said: "We never held in the *Palmer* case that any one could be placed in the competitive class who had not passed a competitive examination."

In regard to the claim of unconstitutionality of Section 10 of the Civil Service Law, the court pointed out that while the courts can and should enforce the civil service provisions of the constitution requiring competitive examinations wherever practicable, even without a rule of the Commission approved by the Gov-

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ernor, the statute requiring such approval was nevertheless not unconstitutional. It said: "The fact that the Governor does not approve a rule does not make this act unconstitutional (Section 10 of the Civil Service Law) for the legislature had as much power to require the Governor's approval as it had to appoint the Commission or give them the duty of making rules. . . . The legislature had the power to make the Governor one of the Commission or possibly to make him the sole commissioner. The constitution placed no limitation upon the legislature as to the method for enforcing the civil service rights. The legislature was free to adopt any method so long as the places were filled by competitive examinations when it was feasible and proper so to do."

JUST prior to the Court of Appeals decision in the *Booker* case, two other cases involving similar issues were decided by the lower courts, in which the *Palmer* case was cited and followed. In *Gainey v. The Village of Depew*, 257 App. Div. 1, 12 N. Y. Supp. (2d) 775 (July 1939), a policeman in a first class village sought to compel the village to reinstate him on the ground that his removal was illegal since it was not based upon a hearing after charges. The Appellate Division, Fourth Department, held that he was not entitled to reinstatement, since his original appointment was not made after competitive examination, and therefore had been in violation of the state constitution.

Similarly, in *Rotheim v. Patterson*, 15 N. Y. Supp. (2d) 247 (Oct. 1939), the court dismissed a petition brought by a policeman in the Village of Freeport, seeking a review of his dismissal, on the ground that he had no legal right to the position and was subject to removal at will, since he was not appointed after a competitive examination. In this case, when the petitioner had been appointed without examination in 1931, the Civil Service Rules had not yet been extended to that village, either by act of the legislature or of the Civil Service Commission. In 1936, the legislature amended the Village Law, so as to extend the civil service rules to such police departments. It also provided for the retention in the competitive service of those incumbents already "lawfully serving." In 1937, the Civil Service Commission, in accordance with this legislation, also extended its rules. Nevertheless, the

court held that the petitioner had no lawful right to the position, adding: "Everyone concerned seemed to be of the opinion that the rules of the Civil Service Commission would not apply until expressly extended by act of the legislature or by extension of the rules by the Civil Service Commission. That they were all wrong in their interpretation of the law can furnish no aid or comfort to the petitioner and to those who may be in a similar position. Notwithstanding the hardship and seeming unfairness of the result, the court must follow the constitution and the decided cases."

THE practice of "covering in" incumbents of positions appointed without competitive examination, where the rules of the civil service are to be invoked for the first time, has been followed in many jurisdictions. It is doubtful whether the New York Court of Appeals in the *Palmer* or *Booker* cases has specifically laid down the rule that in no case may the incumbents of positions be covered into the competitive class without the requirement of competitive examination. Judging by the Court of Appeals decision in *Andresen v. Rice*, 277 N. Y. 271, 14 N. E. (2d) 65 (Mar. 1938); *Sandford v. Finegan*, 276 N. Y. 70, 11 N. E. (2d) 356 (Nov. 1937), *Fornara v. Schroeder*, 261 N. Y. 363, 85 N. E. 498 (April 1933), it is probable that the court has still left the matter open for decision squarely on that issue.

Similar problems have also been raised in New York by the transition from temporary emergency relief administration to a more permanent state program of social welfare administration provided for by the legislature in 1937. This raised many questions about the status under the civil service law of former employees of the emergency agencies after transfer and the rights of permanent employees, theretofore employed in the city governments. The status of the emergency relief employees transferred to the state department was first passed upon by the Court of Appeals in *Kraus v. Singstad*, 275 N. Y. 302, 9 N.E. (2d) 938 (July 1937), and *Aversa v. Finegan*, 275 N. Y. 512, 11 N. E. (2d) 320 (July 1937).

IT is doubtful whether the Court of Appeals in the *Palmer* or *Booker* cases has held that under no circumstances whatever may

employees serving in the local jurisdictions not already under the civil service rules be covered in without competitive examinations. The court will undoubtedly make a distinction between the case of persons serving in positions in jurisdictions to which the civil service rules have never been extended, and cases where employments were made without examination in direct evasion of the civil service law. In the latter cases there could be no excuse for not complying with the rules. The court would undoubtedly appreciate that in the first instance there was no practical way of making appointments after competitive examination; while in the second case that it was deliberate avoidance of competition. The court might not be inclined to permit one who has not been appointed after competitive examination to claim the privileges accorded an employee under the civil service rules.

The court will probably not hold invalid a general proposal extending the competitive system and cover in those already serving in the positions. That this apparently will be the attitude of the court is indicated by the decisions in the *Matter of Kinsella v. Kern*, 168 Misc.; affirmed 254 App. Div. 834; (appeal denied by the Court of Appeals), where the court permitted persons serving as hospital helpers in the noncompetitive class, but actually found to be performing the work of clerk, typists, etc., to be reclassified under new titles in the competitive class, and the incumbents continued without competitive examination; and *Jampol v. Kern*, 254 App. Div. 733, affirmed 280 N. Y. 659—Involving a similar issue.

The issue is bound to come before the court for decision soon, for as further extensions of the competitive system in the state service are made, the problem of "covering in" incumbents without requiring competitive examination, becomes increasingly important.

II

THE recent case of *Ackerman v. Kern*, 281 N. Y. 87, 22 N. E. (2d) 247 (July 1939), was a proceeding for an order directing the certification of petitioners' names from a promotion list for assistant chief investigator, to fill positions of supervisor, grade 3, in the permanent Department of Welfare. These positions were then being held by provisional employees, appointed without any examination, before the

Civil Service Commission classified the position and placed it in the competitive class. The Court of Appeals held that the petitioners, who were regular civil service employees appointed after examination, and who had then passed a competitive promotion examination for assistant chief investigator, were entitled to appointment from the departmental promotion list, and to replace the temporary employees transferred from the emergency relief bureau and occupying equivalent positions without such examination. The court decided that the competitive promotion list for "assistant chief investigator" was an appropriate list for making appointments to the position of social investigator, grade 3, since the duties and salary were the same, and nothing in the record justified any distinction.

In answer to the claim that the petitioners had not passed such a competitive test as was also open to the temporary appointees, as provided for by section 3-k of chapter 358 of the Laws of 1937, the court said: "The persons upon these lists cannot be excluded from the positions to which they are entitled . . . by methods which in result work a violation of our civil service laws. The requirement for competitive examination cannot be evaded by an examination to one who has held a position for years in violation of the law, giving him a rating for experience thus gained over and above one who had taken the competitive examination and should have been appointed in the first place. This is permitting an experience acquired in violation of law to supersede existing competitive lists."

A similar issue was raised in the later case of *Abrams v. Kern*, 281 N. Y. 211 (Nov. 1939) where it was contended by intervening petitioners that those holding temporary positions in the Public Welfare Department after transfer from the emergency relief bureau, were under the statute (above referred to) entitled to compete in an open competitive examination, since there was no departmental promotion list in existence for the Department of Welfare. The intervenors sought to restrain the Civil Service Commission from certifying names from a city-wide promotion eligible list, thus attempting to distinguish the case from the *Britt* and *Ackerman* cases, where departmental promotion lists were involved. The court upheld the right of the petitioners, eligi-

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bles on the city-wide promotion list, to promotion to the places in the Public Welfare Department instead of the intervening petitioners who were serving temporarily. The court was silent as to the authority of the Commission to establish promotion lists on a city-wide basis, as distinguished from departmental promotion lists, although the question was inferentially involved.

IN *Talbert v. Jedcock*, 14 N. Y. Supp. (2d) 362 (May 1939) the petitioner serving in the Erie County Department of Social Welfare after transfer from the emergency relief bureau where she had served for over three years, sought to compel the Department of Social Welfare to recognize her as having permanent status under the Civil Service Law (section 14). This section provides in part that no person serving in a position outside of the competitive class shall be transferred to a position in the competitive class "unless he shall have served with fidelity for at least three years in a similar position."

The petitioner, seeking to establish her right to permanent status claimed that she had passed a "departmental examination" held by the Emergency Relief Bureau of Erie County and another held by the Department of Social Welfare of the City of Buffalo, before she had been transferred to the new Department of Social Welfare of Erie County. She sought therefore to be appointed "nunc pro tunc as of the date the petitioner should have been appointed had the civil service law functioned properly."

The court said that the fundamental constitutional purpose of competitive examination wherever practicable must be read into all legislation enacted under the New York constitutional mandate. In reference to section 14, the court said: "This legislative enactment presupposes that the incumbent who has served with fidelity for at least three years in a similar position, *had previously passed an open competitive examination equivalent to that required for such position.*"

Therefore, it was held that the continued employment of the petitioner did not give her more than the status of a temporary appointee; that she acquired "no right by mere prolonged service to exclude others from public service who had passed the appropriate competitive

civil service examination," and that a temporary appointment to a competitive position cannot ripen into a permanent appointment merely by lapse of time.

THE right of the State Legislature to classify civil service positions with respect to the administration of the State Labor Law was considered in *Metropolitan Life Insurance Company v. Boland*, 281 N. Y. 357, 23 N. E. (2d) 532 N. Y. (Nov. 14, 1939). That case involved the appointment of a trial examiner for the purpose of conducting a hearing on a charge of violation by the plaintiff company of the provisions of the New York State Labor Relations Act. The Civil Service Commission certified an examiner after *exemption from competitive examination under the provisions of section 15 of the State Civil Service Law, which authorizes appointments without examination for temporary service.* However, the court set aside the appointment of the examiner, on the ground that the Labor Relations Act specifically provides that trial examiners are to be appointed by the Board "from eligible lists to be promulgated by the Civil Service Commission as the result of competitive examinations held pursuant to the civil service law and rules...." The court said: "The wording of the section is unambiguous and shows the purpose and intent of the legislature to permit the Board to appoint a trial examiner only from a list promulgated by the Civil Service Commission after and as a result of competitive examination. . . . In substance, as to all intents and purposes, the legislature said that appointees to the position of examiner could not be exempted from competitive examination by the Civil Service Commission and that the Commission should be barred from classifying the position as exempt from competitive examination."

The court pointed out that in other statutes authorizing appointments by other administrative agencies, unlike the instant statute, appointments were to be "subject to civil service rules," "subject to the civil service law," etc., "meaning thereby that the Civil Service Law and the rules of the Commission are to be resorted to in certifying persons to those agencies for appointment." But the specific wording of the instant statute, quoted above, provides a definite standard of appointment and requires a competitive examination.

THE discretion of a state civil service commission to classify a position in the non-competitive class, where the statute required competitive test, was considered in *Freedman v. Bruckman*, 14 N. Y. Supp. (2d) (Oct. 13, 1939). The statute (chapter 817, laws of 1937) provided that all employees of the State Liquor Authority (with certain exceptions) "shall be in the competitive class of the civil service." The court nevertheless upheld the right of the Civil Service Commission to classify the position of associate counsel for the State Liquor Authority in the non-competitive class, where, in the Commission's discretion, it deemed competitive examination to be impracticable. The court argued that "In using the expression in that statute 'competitive class,' the legislature used it in the light of its own conditioned definition that it was one where it is practicable to make determination of fitness by competitive examination. . . . It cannot be assumed, I think, that the legislature found in enacting alcoholic beverage control laws, section 15, that it would always be practical to determine the merit and fitness of each employee embraced in the general category of the competitive class any more than that assumption may be made from the general language of inclusion used in the Civil Service Law, section 14. In both instances, and where the same conditions arise, the Civil Service Commission was vested with the power to determine practicability of ascertaining qualifications by competitive examination."

III

THE conflict between the civil service provisions of a home rule charter and a state statute was presented to the Court of Appeals of Ohio in *Underwood v. Isham*, 61 Ohio App. 129, 22 N. E. (2d) 468 (Jan. 23, 1939). The Civil Service Commissioners of the City of Akron sought a declaratory judgment to the effect that the civil service provisions of the city charter applied to specified employees of the Municipal Court of Akron. Since the Municipal Court was created by a state statute, and since the statute provided for the appointment, tenure, and salaries of the court officials, the court held that the charter provisions must yield to the superior authority of the state legislature. Referring to the state constitutional amendment allowing cities to frame

their own local charters, the court said: "The principal, if not the only change made by the 'home rule' amendment to the constitution was in the method of determining whether a municipality possessed a given power. Prior to the amendment the problem was solved by searching for a legislative enabling act. After the amendment the search was for a legislative act preempting the field to the exclusion of municipal action. If the Legislature in the exercise of its constitutional power to enact general or special laws has legislated, the municipality cannot nullify such legislation."

Another illustration of **conflict between a municipal ordinance and state civil service regulation** is found in *Ex Parte Means*, 93 Par. (2d) 105 (Calif. Aug. 24, 1939). An ordinance of the City of Sacramento provided that it shall be unlawful for any person to perform labor as a journeyman plumber unless a certificate of registration is procured, after proper examination. The petitioner, seeking a discharge from custody for violation of the ordinance, was a state civil service employee engaged in work in the city. The court held that the ordinance was inapplicable to the petitioner, by virtue of the superior force of the state civil service regulations. "There can be no question concerning the power of the state in its proprietary capacity to lay down the qualifications for its employees. It acts in an exclusive field. . . . , and is not subject to the legislative enactments of subordinate governmental agencies." Although the state constitution provides that ordinances *concerning municipal affairs* enacted by charter cities are paramount to the general laws of the state, the court held that "the challenged ordinance, insofar as it attempts to regulate employees of the state, is not legislation having to do with a municipal affair. . . ."

IV

THE protection of veterans in the civil service applies even to veterans holding probationary appointments it was decided in *Bemis v. Board of Education*, 14 N. Y. Supp. (2d) 182 (N. Y. Sup. Ct. Herkimer Co., Aug. 16, 1939). The petitioner, an honorably discharged soldier of the World War appointed to the position of supervisor and teacher of physical education for a probationary period of three years, was discharged without charges and without a hearing, and sought a writ of mandamus

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compelling his reinstatement. The case involved an interpretation of the State Civil Service Law and the State Education Law; section 312-a of the Education Law allows a supervisor appointed for a probationary period to be dismissed at any time upon the recommendation of the Superintendent of Schools, and no mention is made of charges or a hearing. However, subdivision 1 of section 22 of the State Civil Service Law provides: "No person *holding* a position by appointment or employment . . . in the public school service, who is an honorably discharged soldier, . . . in the world war . . . shall be removed from such position except for incompetency or misconduct shown after a hearing upon due notice upon stated charges, and with the right to such employee or appointee to a review by certiorari." (Italics added.) The court, granting the writ of mandamus, held that the word "holding" in the Civil Service Law includes a probationary appointment as well as a permanent one. The court reconciled the Education Law with the Civil Service Law. "The Legislature in enacting Section 22 of the Civil Service Law did not take away from the Board of Education the power to suspend or remove a teacher or supervisor who was an honorably discharged soldier and appointed for a probationary period. It merely regulated the mode and manner of removal and provided that charges must be preferred against a veteran and that he should have the right to be heard before removal."

V

IN the case of *Schildwachter v. City of Compton*, 94 Pac. (2d) 346 (Calif. Sept. 27, 1939), the California Supreme Court had before it the question of a **repeal of a civil service ordinance by popular vote**. At a special election called to determine the question of repeal of the civil service ordinance, a majority of the electors voted in favor of repeal. The plaintiff sought to declare the repeal a nullity, arguing that a two-thirds vote was necessary for a proper repeal; and contending that the matter was improperly submitted as a "proposition" instead of an ordinance. Although the city charter authorizes a "Civil Service System subject to the terms of this charter," it is silent on the procedure of repeal of a civil service ordinance. However, the State Municipal Civil Service Act

provides that the legislative body of any municipality which has established a civil service system "shall not have the authority to withdraw any departments, appointive officers or employees from the operation of such system" unless such withdrawal shall be approved at a special election by a two-thirds vote. The plaintiff contended that by virtue of this statutory provision, a two-thirds vote was required for the repeal of the civil service ordinance. The court rejected the argument, stating that "the very statutory provision relied upon by plaintiff has nothing to do with an election called for the purpose of repealing a civil service ordinance. The suggestion that repeal is simply another form of withdrawing positions from the operation of the system is without force. It is entirely reasonable that the council should have power by ordinance to establish or repeal a civil service system, and that the people should likewise have such power by majority vote." The purpose of the statutory provision relied on by the plaintiff was merely "to discourage and make more difficult the exemption of departments or positions by members of the governing body of the municipality," and it may not be "invoked to deprive the electors of their normal power to adopt legislation by a majority vote."

With respect to the plaintiff's second contention that the repeal was improperly submitted as a "proposition," the court pointed out that the state law governing initiative and referendum provides for the submission of "a proposition for the repeal of any adopted ordinance."

VI

AN interesting case involving the liability of a state to pay interest on back salary paid to a civil service employee was recently decided by the California District Court of Appeals in *Nillson v. State Personnel Board*, 100 Cal. App. -Dec. 1, 1939). The question for decision was whether or not the appropriation in a mandamus proceeding, ordering payment to an improperly dismissed state civil service employee of salary during the period between dismissal and reinstatement, was such a judgment as would bear interest from the date of its entry under the provisions of the state constitution. **The court held that the petitioner was not entitled to interest on the unpaid salary, since the judgment was not a money judgment.**

BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY JEAN CHARTERS

New Adventures in Democracy: Practical Applications of the Democratic Idea. Ordway Tead. McGraw-Hill Book Co. New York. 1939. 229p. \$2.00.

The New Democracy and the New Despotism. Charles E. Merriam. McGraw-Hill Book Co. New York. 1939. 278p. \$3.00.

Ordway Tead has been for many years the outstanding protagonist of the concept that efficient administration and the democratic process are not only compatible but that the democratic process is in fact indispensable to sustained efficiency in administration. This volume is a restatement and an effective elaboration of that thesis. It examines the application of the democratic process to management situations in three important fields—education, public service, and industry.

The application of the author's concept of the democratic process in public management is of primary interest to the readers of this journal. Six broad principles, he believes, must underlie the continued improvement of public management. First, he declares, is the principle that public management must be well done with economy of cost and with the determination of particular policies and methods arising out of more democratically organized management units. Second, he believes that increasingly wise public management must take the initiative in appealing on a group basis for cooperation and creative initiative. Third, he asserts that the "best administrators of tomorrow will be technically qualified but they will also be democratically minded in their administrative outlook and leadership skill." Fourth, he dissents from the current Hatch Act trend by declaring that public employees "have the right and the duty to make

vocal their fundamental political conviction regarding the kind and quality of activity that should be publicly administered." Fifth, he holds that "good administrative management today requires explicit, articulate, responsible and wisely led organization among the rank and file of workers involved, organization that is met by management in such a way that not only are employee rights protected, but employees are affirmatively stimulated to the best group achievement." Finally, he asserts that "good administrative management in the public service implies belief on the part of the administrators at every level in a national purpose in a democracy."

The author makes some of his most pertinent observations upon the merit system as a particular phase of democratic public management. His thinking may be best summarized in the author's concluding sentences: "Democracy is having growing pains as to what it is and how it works. . . . Democracy seems to require an extending of the areas of public responsibility for direct action. . . . Democracy will do this at its peril unless it proves able to operate its administrative machinery and personnel relations in a democratic manner. . . . Hence the importance of the merit system as a democratic procedure for individualizing attention to worthfulness and personal contribution."

Those who have read Professor Merriam's essay on *Political Power* will find his volume on *The New Democracy and The New Despotism* familiar reading. This is not to say that the present volume is repetitious of Professor Merriam's previous writings, but rather that it flows logically out of his previous analyses of political institutions. The current volume is a reaffirmation of the author's faith in the democratic process. It is a convincing exposition of

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the superiority of the new democracy over the new despotism, convincing not in its appeal to the sentiments of the democratic tradition but in its informed perspective and in its calm appraisal of the impermanency of the noisy new despotism.

The central importance of the organization of public administration in the system of democracy is, of course, adequately recognized by the author. He, too, sees the necessity of the integration of the democratic process with the techniques of public management. "If the spirit of science and the spirit of democracy enter into administration," he declares, "many of the historic evils of officialism will tend to disappear."

WALLACE S. SAYRE

Civil Service Commission
New York, New York

Civil Service: Our Government as an Employer.
Prepared by Chester C. Carrothers, New Jersey State Teachers College, for the Committee on Experimental Units of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Ginn and Co. Boston. 1939. 91p. \$6.0.

To the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and to Chester C. Carrothers, kudos for *Civil Service: Our Government As An Employer*. This is a publication designed for use in high schools to impart to future graduates the nature, functions, and problems of the civil service in national, state, and local governments.

Proponents of the merit system in public employment may well be thankful for this first and successful attempt to bring to the secondary schools of the United States a clear but concise exposition of the necessity for the extension and improvement of the merit system, and the opportunities, present and potential, for careers in the public service. The citizens of the country should appreciate this effort to educate high school students to the immediate need for improved, efficient, and economic public service and administration. Let us hope that the use of this work and the adoption of its suggested study projects will soon become widespread in our secondary school system, and will usher in a sorely needed merit-system-conscious generation.

While this work is primarily a guide for

school teachers and a program for high school students, it has considerable value for personnel technicians and administrators. Personnel officers are also teachers, and though they deal chiefly with adults, adults often require education in the terms in which this book is organized and written. The personnel officer who carries on a public relations and educational program may often do so in the esoteric terminology of his profession. Here is something through which he can "sell the merit system" to students, civil servants, and members of civic and business clubs in the non-technical vocabulary of the layman.

Part I of the booklet is a synoptic study of the federal civil service. It opens with the question "Why Study Civil Service?" then proceeds to explain the organization of the civil service, how civil service employees are classified, and the nature of civil service examinations. Supervision of personnel and compensation of employees are discussed. In short, the basic elements constituting a sound public personnel program are set forth in the language of the third or fourth year high school student. For contrast, the author points out the practices and effects of the spoils system and evasions of merit-system principles. He also mentions employee organizations and their contributions to the extension and enforcement of the merit system in the Federal service. In summation, Part I closes with a section entitled, "Your Stake in the Civil Service." The following statement keynotes this section: "We need a civil service that will command our whole-hearted support and that will enable our government to serve more wisely the interests of all citizens." Upon this premise the high school student is urged to prepare for a career in the public service.

Part II is concerned with civil service in the states and counties. The author briefly describes the civil service agency and its functions, and contrasts personnel practices in states and counties which have no merit system.

The last part relates to civil service in the cities. It describes types of merit systems in city governments, their operation, conditions of employment, and unsound personnel practices. A special section refers to schools and libraries, urging that the personnel of such institutions be placed under a sound merit system. There follows a summary of the principal features of

civil service systems in four representative American cities: "New York—Our Largest City and Home of Tammany Hall; Chicago—Our Second Largest City, Where the Merit System Is Subject to Political Manipulation; St. Paul—Originator of the Probst Rating System; Cincinnati—One of Our Best-Governed Cities." In conclusion, tabulations of arguments for and against the merit system and a statement of the need for improving the public service are presented.

The volume contains three appendices: "A Topical Plan of Study," "Problems and Projects for Discussion," and "Classroom, Library, and General Bibliography." Herein lies perhaps the work's greatest importance, for its organization, suggested procedures and bibliography of writings by eminent authorities compel the high school student to come into direct contact with the government and the merit system. The student's curiosity is bound to be aroused and he is launched upon a quest for further and greater knowledge of the problem of public service and careers therein.

To the further credit of this publication is its physical make-up and appearance. The type is such that reading is made easy for the high school student. There is a judicious distribution of illustrations, some of which are fine quality photographs, full and half page, exemplifying types of positions in the public service. Titles and captions accompanying the pictures provoke interest and thought. Praise is also due for the types of employment which have been photographed, for they illustrate the kinds of governmental services which in themselves demonstrate the necessity for recruiting competent personnel by merit system methods.

Other illustrative material includes arithmetical statistics, pictorial statistics, maps, cartoons, an examination announcement, and a Probst Service Rating form. All of these demonstrate that a conscious effort to attract and hold the interest of the young student in an otherwise technical and complicated subject is necessary, and in this case successful.

The approach to the student is an interesting one for these turbulent days when democratic procedures have been allowed to be driven into a defensive position. The operation of the merit system is presented in contrast to practices existing in the patronage system. But, the author says, "Democracy is a way of life—of

thinking and planning and doing. . . . The study of democracy needs continual discussion and clarification and straight thinking, for democracy has to do with the manner in which all the people, intelligently working together, can best benefit themselves. . . . We should make use of the best sources of information and of reasonable methods of thinking (using data and testing conclusions), and should seek effective programs of action. . . . Your attitude toward further extension of the merit system will depend upon your judgment as to the relative merit of the arguments used for or against it and upon your experience with government activities."

EMIL WACHTEL

Farm Security Administration
San Francisco, California.

State Personnel Administration, with Special Reference to Departments of Education. Katherine A. Frederic. Government Printing Office. Washington, D. C. 1939. 267p. \$35.

Since the volume under review contains no new technical material and is not an inspiring general study, most readers of *Public Personnel Review* probably will not wish to read it, and the reviewer sees no reason for urging them to do so. At the same time the reviewer feels that the volume is a substantial piece of work which reflects credit on the staff of the Advisory Committee on Education which gathered the material and on Miss Katherine Frederic who wrote it. Those readers who have a special interest in problems of state school administration cannot afford to miss it.

The study begins with a good generalized discussion of state personnel agencies (most of the material being as of 1937). This is followed by an analysis of the organization and personnel of state departments of education. Educational qualifications and experience of chief school officers and of their staffs are given in considerable detail, enabling the reader to form a fairly comprehensive picture of state departments of education. Generalizations are not bandied too freely but a few sentences are worth quoting. One is that "half of the employees of the state departments of education in 1938 had held their positions for not more than 3 years." In close relationship it was noted that "The data presented indicate that

the general level of education and of experience of staff members of state departments of education is not as high as is desirable in view of the responsibilities of administrative and professional positions."

These rather discouraging statements about state personnel put defenders of state rights on the spot. The state righters must feel even more uncomfortable when they read that the vocational education personnel (supported by federal funds in part) has somewhat higher standards of education and experience.

It is, however, encouraging to read that in the states which have civil service laws or appointed chief state school officers, the experience of the non-vocational personnel is greater. In any event it is well for us to meet frank factual statements of our state personnel practices. This volume falls definitely in that category.

G. C. S. BENSON

University of Michigan
Ann Arbor, Michigan

Government of Cities in the United States.
Harold Zink. The Macmillan Co. New York.
1939. 639p. \$3.50.

A textbook on local government may be of interest to students and practitioners of public personnel administration for two reasons. First—because the informational background of the personnel office must be as broad and diversified as the functions of the personnel it serves—personnel officers are constantly on the alert for new and useful sources of reference. Second, personnel officers have a natural interest in what college students are being taught about personnel problems. This review will try to appraise Professor Zink's new text on the basis of these two interests.

Professor Zink has organized the 32 chapters of his text into seven parts:

- I An introduction which includes a sketch of historical and factual bases of city government and an appraisal of the social consequences of urbanization;
- II The place of cities in the governmental system of the United States;
- III Legal aspects of city government;
- IV Municipal elections and politics;
- V The structure of city government;
- VI The activities of city government; and
- VII The problem of better city government.

In view of the author's long-standing interest in politics and political parties, it is not surprising to find that parts IV and VII are treated with more force and understanding than other parts of the text. His chapter on municipal pressure groups is especially good, and the last chapter, "The Problem of Creating a Popular Demand for Good City Government," serves as a challenging finale. An unusual feature of the book, included as an appendix, is "A Project in Municipal Measurement." The project consists principally of 50 general items—such as popular interest, the city council, recruiting of personnel, and tax rates—which students are asked to investigate. A number of questions or suggested measurement devices accompany each item. As a measurement study this project leaves much to be desired. Few standards are suggested against which students can check their findings for a particular city. Furthermore, some of the items themselves are open to criticism. For example, under the item "Fire Loss," the author asks, "What is the per capita fire loss and how does it compare with the record of other cities of similar size and character?" The ratio of fire loss to the value of burnable property would be a better measurement. It seems clear, however, that the main purpose of this project is to focus the attention of the student on the problem of measurement and to give him a basis for surveying his city government. As a teaching aid, it deserves sincere praise and approval.

No text that attempts to cover municipal government and administration in a single volume can satisfy the interests of all readers and reviewers. A few of the sections which this reviewer found disappointing may be mentioned briefly. It is surprising in these times to find that little or no attention is given to the problem of civil liberties in American cities. Oblique mention of the problem is found occasionally, but that is all. In the chapter on federal-city relations, more might well have been said concerning the effect of direct federal-city contacts in recent years upon the relationships between states and cities. The problems arising out of the multiplicity of overlapping local units also call for more adequate treatment than is found in this text. In the chapters devoted to municipal administration, there are several instances of distorted emphasis. In the

chapters on municipal finance, for example, eight pages are devoted to the essentials of an adequate assessing system, while the execution of the budget is dismissed with a single brief paragraph.

The chapter on personnel administration is quite adequate, considering the limited space (sixteen pages) that the author was able to allot to this subject. The sections on pensions and on morale and conditions of employment are probably the weakest in the chapter. It also seems to this reviewer that the author is somewhat unfair in this chapter and elsewhere in the text in his treatment of municipal employee organizations. On the few occasions when they are mentioned, they are cast in the unsympathetic role of selfish interest groups and lobbyists, with practically no mention being made of the problems they are attempting to meet or of the constructive efforts of some employee organizations.

Favorable mention must be made of the selected bibliographies that appear at the end of the several chapters. Professor Zink has covered a wide range of source material in the preparation of his text, and his selections will be very useful to those wishing to read further on any particular subject.

In fairness to the author, this review must be concluded by an acknowledgment that his text is intended primarily for classroom use and not as a reference volume. To point out its shortcomings for the readers of this journal is therefore not entirely fair. The excellent organization of the text, the clarity with which most municipal problems are identified, and the consistent effort to portray the realities of municipal affairs are all virtues which would require further emphasis if this review were directed toward teachers of municipal government.

ELTON D. WOOLPERT

International City Managers' Association
Chicago, Illinois

Papers Presented at the Second Stanford Industrial Relations Conference. Stanford University. 1939. 205p.

On March 27-31, 1939, the Second Stanford Industrial Relations Conference held at Stanford University produced this diverse collection of seventeen papers reflecting current ideas of contributors from several divisions of

industry, business, labor, state and federal government agencies, and higher education. Although emphasis is on collective bargaining and industrial relations *per se*, the usual conference gamut of medical care, employee benefit plans, hiring techniques, wage and salary administration, training, public relations and federal legislation is also covered.

Presenting the first paper in the collection, Frank Rising, industrial relations editor, leads off with a sweeping, candid, and current appraisal of "Industrial Relations Today" as they concern organized labor, the public, and business management. Mr. Rising strikes from a nice vantage point and has a healthy disregard for tyrannical phrases. "Collective Bargaining on an Industry-Wide Basis" is an unvarnished case history of the five-year development of collective bargaining procedures in the Pacific Coast paper manufacturing industry. Of special interest is the description of the cooperative development of job analysis methods, and of the "gold-fish bowl" conference scheme in which a non-negotiating audience of both management and employee members witness appointed delegates negotiate. "A Concept of Industrial Relations" strikes the reviewer as an ambitious survey of a large area of activity, with a generous amount of "abracadabra"—to use one of the author's own terms. The ideas expressed seem easily tenable but hardly novel. The observations reported in "Some Observations on Group Collective Bargaining" probably would not be classed as profound or stimulating. Under the artful title "Collective Bargaining on a Community-Wide Basis" the broad objectives and advantages of San Francisco's "non-profit corporation . . . of employer groups" are described by the President of the organization. Perhaps his point of view, to wit: "Collective bargaining is primarily a pressure game," and "We expect to match heat with heat" has been sharply shaped by the current local situation.

"Cost of Medical Care" presents a systematic analysis of the advantages and disadvantages of six principal types of employee medical service plans, together with cost data. In "Employee Benefit Programs" emphasis is on cost data which are given for three legally required plans and six voluntary plans. A "well-balanced" program would appear to absorb 15% of the pay roll. J. W. Riegel successfully

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describes in sixteen pages of "Wage and Salary Administration," and in surprising detail, the procedures for adjusting wages and salaries in accordance with six fundamental policies. His distinction between rating plans for adjusting compensation and those for placement and training seems controversial. "Hiring Techniques as an Aid in Industrial Relations" is premised on the time-worn and unassailable contention that once wages, hours, and working conditions are in order, employee relations problems can be traced to hiring the wrong employee. The ideas bear repeating; the treatment seems "mine-run." "Training Programs" is convincing in its enumeration of specific needs and techniques for training top management, personnel men, foremen, and representatives of labor. An experiment with the latter is described. A company vice-president makes some timely remarks in "Industrial Relations and Public Relations" to the tune that whatever affects public interest is public relations whether it is the president's salary or smoke from the factory chimney, and whether in a large or a small business. Aside from an unabashed dislike for governmental regulatory activities, the author's major criticism is directed toward public relations programs which spring from incomprehensive policies.

Three papers inventory the objectives, administration and *status quo* of the Fair Labor Standards Act, the Social Security Act, and the National Labor Relations Act. Attorney Robert Littler's paper on the NLRB is outstanding for clarity, objectivity and constructiveness of approach. Any man in the street would appreciate the helpful segregation of administrative problems, the not over-simplified appraisal of the merits of proposed amendments to the Act, the substantiated criticisms, the alternative proposals, the common sense reminder of just what things can and can not be legislated, the realistic appreciation of the Board's difficulties and of the factors motivating proposals by divergent interests, and the overall perspective displayed in this paper.

Harry Bridges, the lone representative of organized labor discusses the "Program of the CIO" and wanders freely, expounding the industrial form of organization, skirting the wage-hour problem, emphasizing the democratic structure of the CIO, assailing Fascism, the AFL, and the hiring-away of trade

union officials by businessmen. He closes his paper with the announcement that the CIO means to continue to be active in politics from the national to the county level. Under "Monopoly and the Closed Shop" the Director of the American Research Foundation criticises Mr. Bridges' paper and probes the problem of the type of monopoly established by the closed shop. Attorney A. H. Rosinshine completes the collection with "Problems of Arbitration." In his observations as an experienced labor dispute arbitrator, he succinctly characterizes typical situations, describes attending labor and management arguments, gives a restrained and objective appraisal of strong and weak points in the approaches of the contending parties, and presents his conclusions.

CHARLES F. GLASS

Personnel Department
Tennessee Valley Authority.

Employment Department Organization and Procedure. National Retail Dry Goods Association. New York. 1939. 40p. \$2.00.

This study is satisfying to the curiosity of those of us who, as purchasers wonder how the wheels go around in some of these institutions of merchandising which are so necessary. It describes some of the mechanics of wheel turning in a very representative group of stores—stores whose names and advertising are familiar, whose goods may hang in our closets, and whose labels sometimes confront us when we pick up our coats and hats.

As an analysis of employment department operation, the study is well presented. It is informative, comprehensive, and logical in its order of subject matter presentation, touching upon the organization of the employment department, its procedures and employment forms. One gets the feeling, however, that some portions of the material would lend themselves to less cryptic treatment, and that parts of the study could be discussed in more detail. The introduction, for example, points out that "the result of the analysis has been . . . a comprehensive picture of existing practice and a fairly clear indication of the direction which future developments must take." To this reader the latter part of that statement seems not to be fully justified, for there is relatively little discussion of the reasons for the differences in employment practices between the stores in-

cluded in the study. Varied employment practices are enumerated, varied types of personnel forms are reproduced; but there is a noticeable lack of reference to the advantages or disadvantages of these practices and forms. Such a discussion would have served to point out the desirability of some over others, and would have thus indicated the nature of future developments in retail store employment practices.

One is impressed by the apparent ingrown nature of the typical qualifications for employment department personnel which the study reveals. It is almost an employment axiom that good selection depends upon a knowledge of the operations to be performed in the job to be filled. This being true, an organization's selection and placement activities may be better accomplished by individuals who know store operations.

It is hoped that a realization of the desirability for training in personnel administration, in addition to experience in store operations, will grow among the employment departments of these stores. Particularly is this to be wished for, since, as the opening sentence of the introduction states, "The operation of the employment department has a very vital bearing on the efficiency and progress of a store as a whole."

PERRY HUNTLEY HOFFMAN

State Technical Advisory Service
Social Security Board

The Licensing of Professions in West Virginia.
Frances Priscilla De Lancy. Foundation
Press. Chicago. 1938. 197p. \$2.25.

The increasing intervention of government in man's daily affairs has produced a tremendous body of literature dealing with problems arising out of the relation between private interests and the general welfare. This little volume deals with a very specialized aspect of the situation—just how admissions to the professions are controlled, who controls them, and why. Ordinarily such a subject would elicit little attention from any but those immediately concerned, but so comprehensive is the author's approach and so thorough her analysis that she illuminates the larger problem in considering a minute part of it.

Government has long faced a problem of unusual difficulty in its relation with the pro-

fessional services. On the one hand, there has been the feeling that these services—such as medicine, law, accounting, and engineering—were charged with so vital a public interest that they needed special regulation, in contrast to business, where competition might be expected to ensure fairness. On the other hand, government officials have been forced to recognize that the professions deal with a body of knowledge much too complicated for the layman to understand. Between these conflicting forces various devices have been worked out, ranging from the laissez-faire policies of the last century resulting in fraud and incompetence, to the present trend toward group health arrangements in medicine, and to great "law factories." The author's survey of the history, characteristics, administration, and trends of professional licensure brings in these larger problems, and thus gives real meaning to an otherwise infrequently discussed subject.

This book will come as a surprise to those who believe that professional associations, such as the American Bar Association and the American Medical Association, are interested essentially in preserving rigorously high standards on the part of their members. The author points out that the associations have "spent most of their energy in attempting to control the gateway to the profession, while little effort has been made to enforce high moral standards upon licensed practitioners." While the associations have helped in keeping the unfit out of professional occupations, they have tended to forget that their members hold positions in which, according to Laski, "public service is more vital than private profit." Furthermore, the author points out that licensing policies are often determined not by the majority of practitioners but by the minority will of a select group within the profession.

Miss DeLancy has an unfortunate habit of burying some of her more important conclusions in her descriptive context without supporting material nearby. Aside from this, however, her treatment of her subject should be a model for other research workers. She writes with clarity and brevity. Her sources are unusually extensive. Best of all, she has gone beyond the narrow confines of her subject into the broader aspects by reading pertinent works by Brandeis, Frankfurter, Haines, Tawney, Laski, and others. Her book represents both

an excellent job of research and writing, and at the same time a description of the relation between the public welfare and professional interests in a special field that has particular value at a time when professional associations are taking vigorous stands on questions of public concern.

In the last analysis, however, the book is as much a warning as a diagnosis. It may well be a warning to those of us who are a part of the emerging personnel profession. It is clear that some professions have earned the suspicion of the public through policies that seem to aim more at preservation of the existing hierarchy than at a real public service. With the history of these professions in mind, would it not be well for us to keep the policies of our own as democratic as possible with the hope that in this way we can best achieve continued progress and have the respect of those whom we serve?

R. R. ZIMMERMAN

Council of Personnel Administration
Washington, D. C.

Emotions and Bodily Changes: A Survey of Literature on Psychosomatic Interrelationships, 1910-1933. H. Flanders Dunbar. Second Edition. Columbia University. New York. 1939. 601p. \$5.00.

This second edition of a book originally published in 1935 contains a supplementary introduction and additional listings in the bibliography. The new introduction indicates briefly the developments and additions to the field during the five year period subsequent to the last year covered in the first edition. The author considers a general revision unnecessary at the present time since the general point of view would not be altered—and one of the main purposes of the book is to give a general orientation and point of view. Furthermore, as pointed out by the author, a general review is made less necessary by the appearance of a new journal, *Psychosomatic Medicine*, which will contain reviews of the literature of the past five years, following the general pattern of the various sections of this book.

The book is written chiefly with the medical person in mind, but it should be of equal interest to the psychologist, the educator, the human engineer, or anyone interested in those problems of human welfare which involve

emotional-physical relationships. While somewhat technical, its manner of presentation is not beyond the understanding of non-medical persons interested in these problems.

Dr. Dunbar's book is essentially of the nature of an annotated bibliography, but through a carefully constructed general introduction and conclusion, and through introductions and conclusions to each section of the book, it gives a sense of unity, general orientation, perspective, and purpose not often found in purely bibliographic writings. Main points which stand out in the treatment and which form the threads around which the bibliographic abstracts are organized include: (1) growing acceptance in biology and the medical sciences of the view of psychosomatic unity as opposed to psychosomatic dichotomy; (2) remolding of definitions of health and disease in the light of this viewpoint of close relationship and interdependence of psychic and physical factors; (3) a new emphasis in the thinking of clinicians who deal with disease and patients; (4) a growing recognition of the psychic etiology of many types of ill health and of the place of psychotherapy in dealing with various illnesses; and (5) a reiteration of the importance of considering the organism as a whole, or the organism-environment as a whole. The closing sentences of the book imply much of its main purpose: "The old aphorism 'Nemo physiologus nisi psychologus' becomes today not merely an ideal but a fundamental necessity for our further research, just as 'Nemo medicus nisi psychologus' is fundamental to our progress in therapy. At the outset, the field of psychosomatic interrelationships was presented as a borderline problem between the specialties. It has been pointed out, however, that this is much more than a borderline problem: it is the kernel and focus of all medical knowledge and practice."

The book consists of three parts. Part I deals with orientation and methodology. It contains a section devoted to the general problem of mind-body relationship. Diverging views are presented in their historical relationships with an emphasis upon the newer tendencies toward mind-body unity. A second section in Part I deals with psychic problems of acute and chronic illness. A sentence quoted at the beginning of this section gives the keynote to the treatment of the subject. "It is not an over-

statement to say that fully fifty per cent of the problems of the acute stages of an illness and seventy-five per cent of the difficulties of convalescence have their primary origin not in the body, but in the mind of the patient." The last section of Part I presents the literature related to psychosomatic measurements.

Part II (the main part) summarizes the literature on emotions in relation to specific organs or organ systems and to diseases of specific organs or organ systems. There are covered the nervous system, the musculature, the endocrines, general metabolism and heat regulation, the cardiovascular system, the respiratory system, the gastrointestinal system, the genitourinary system, the special sense organs, the skin, and the bones.

Part III is a concluding section presenting the therapeutic implications of the foregoing parts. The emphases are those already mentioned.

There is a bibliography containing two thousand three hundred and fifty-eight titles.

The present work gives evidence of pains-taking and extensive research. It should serve as a valuable storehouse of stimulating information to many to whom the vast and scattered current literature on the subject would not be available. The author seems to have covered the problems well with very few omissions of important contributions. While her own viewpoints are unmistakable she has presented the literature in an unbiased fashion and has not confused facts with theories, as so often occurs in this field of writing. We can well hope that such a book will help to crystallize thinking in the field of psychosomatic relationships, and help point ways to better utilization in clinical practice of present knowledge of these relationships.

But what of the value of this book to those in public personnel work, since this review is written primarily for those in this field of endeavor? The public personnel field includes many medical examiners and other employees concerned less directly with medical examining work. Every medical examiner should be cognizant of the emotional-physical relationships discussed in this book. He would do well to read, for example, the section on emotion as influencing organic heart disease and as etiological in cardiac disorder; or the section on psychic factors in gastric ulcer and other gas-

trointestinal disturbances. The medical examiner, as well as other personnel officers dealing with problems of illness and maladjustment among employees, needs an orientation in the direction given by the present volume. They all need a repeated emphasis upon the fact that failures in job adjustment because of neurosis or other illness may be emotional in origin, upon the relationship between employee morale and physical factors, upon the dependence of job satisfaction, upon health, and upon the effect of worry and emotional stress and strain on physical well-being. Someone has said that stomach ulcer is the occupational disease of personnel directors! A recognition of the relationships stressed in this book might help personnel directors to protect their own health interests.

THELMA HUNT

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Training Procedure. Frank Cushman. John Wiley and Sons. New York. 1940. 220p. \$2.00.

Frank Cushman, the author, is a practicing advocate of the conference method. An earlier book, *Foremanship and Supervision*, has obtained a wide audience, especially in the industrial personnel field to which Mr. Cushman has given his special attention. In *Training Procedure*, he deals in practical fashion with the problems of training employed persons, treating the subject in such a way that assures him a wide audience in public administrative agencies.

Those who have seen this expert from the Office of Education in action, conducting a training conference, know his facility for engineering an analysis of complex subject matter through simple words and procedures. The volume demonstrates that he loses none of this facility in printed teaching media.

In recent years the conference or discussion method has received a tremendous increase in appreciation and use in all levels of educational work, including the training of workers. Mr. Cushman, however, is not simply an enthusiast for the method; he advocates a balanced training program which would include the adaptation of other well-established educational methods.

He emphasizes the necessity for check-up and

follow-up in connection with adult training programs, an element too often overlooked. He is not unaware of the problems of cost, of selling training to line executives, and keeping the line executive interested and aware of his training responsibilities. In addition, he points out that too few supervisors and executives realize that training is always going on in any organization of people, and that the normal, often haphazard training processes are ineffective and expensive compared with systematic, orderly programs.

Deserved emphasis is given to training procedures in "upgrading" organizational units. He points out that the existence of a general need for upgrading depends largely upon the degree to which the organization concerned has to meet competition and that, because of this, public agencies are, as a rule, more likely "to be in need of a general jacking up than are business and industrial organizations."

This is something for those who constantly emphasize the desirability of secure tenure under civil service to think about. For while deserved or not, lay impressions of public service tend to the opinion that public employees are often more concerned with tenure than the out-turn of work on an efficient basis, despite the fact that there is no need for incompatibility in the twin objectives of secure tenure and efficient service. Public personnel agencies should be giving far greater attention to their training responsibilities for increasing the assurance of effective public service. Ways of selling public appropriating agencies on the necessity for adequate financing of training programs is, of course, one of the greatest difficulties, and one which Mr. Cushman unfortunately does not discuss.

ROY F. HENDRICKSON

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U. S. Department of Agriculture.

Management and the Worker. F. J. Roethlisberger and William J. Dickson. Harvard University Press. Cambridge. 1939. 615p. \$4.50.

No one can doubt that the experiment carried on by the Western Electric Company at its Hawthorne Works has made a valuable contribution to the knowledge of proper working conditions and the factors that make for efficient and satisfactory employee performance.

The experimental tests outlined in the first few chapters of *Management and the Worker* are logically a part of an industrial relations research program. As pure research without regard to use, the efforts outlined in the book are beyond criticism. Such research is found all too seldom in either the private or public personnel fields. The findings are probably accurate in relation to the situations and subjects studied. Any student of working conditions and employee morale will find a wealth of material in this book.

The authors, F. J. Roethlisberger, Associate Professor of Industrial Research at the Harvard School of Business Administration, and William J. Dickson, Chief of the Employee Relations Research Department at the Hawthorne Works of the Western Electric Company, were assisted in the study reported in this book by Harold A. Wright, Chief of the Personnel Research and Training Division at the Hawthorne Works.

For purposes of review the book should be analyzed from two standpoints: (1) the contribution to research and (2) the use of the research information in connection with the development of improved supervision. The company and Harvard University have proved that there is much to learn regarding the question of employee attitudes and their effect on performance. The test material can well be reviewed by executives who think they have satisfied employees. The experimental findings regarding reactions and responses under different environmental and group situations have provided information for which all employers should be grateful and which justify the development of a continuing and intensive research program. These experimental tests and the interviews have provided enlightening data on the causes of employee dissatisfaction and low performance.

No pretense is made by the authors that the program can be applied outside the company, and they have, so far, made no particular recommendation for drastic change within the company. It is inconceivable, however, that even the resources of a large company would be assigned to such a program at so great an expense without regard to profitable use.

The question arises then whether or not the study of machinery for applying the findings has kept pace with the evident need for im-

provement. The authors frankly admit that the splendidly conceived and much copied conference training programs of past years had been found to have limitations and "were not entirely satisfactory."

Attempt was made as the result of the information secured from counselors and investigators, and with some success, to bolster the conference programs by injecting new situations for discussion. Improvement in supervisory interest and performance was shown, but such was also the result over a long period of time with the original conference training program.

Without criticising the training program of the company which was a model for many years, or assuming any weakness in supervision which in Western Electric is probably well above average, consideration might be given to whether or not a new method of developing good supervision is more the answer to the company problem than securing an experienced but an expensive process of interviewing, outside the department concerned, to get information for case discussion in conferences. Other use was made of the material, but it is the opinion of some today that comparable results can be secured by other methods.

A fundamental and accepted principle in industrial organization is that effective management comes by direction from the top management, and functions through its line organization. Training and employee morale is a top management job and cannot be successfully separated from the operating functions of the business. If this book proves anything it is that top management in the company is broad gauged and willing to assume responsibility for the best known program for sound management (if it gets the right advice).

A shot in the arm from the side will stimulate, and a patient will improve, but the dose will wear off. Repeat doses will eventually undermine the stamina of the patient, and he will come to rely on the shot. It is usually better, even though some fall by the wayside, to give the patient competent advice but to let him get strength enough to work out his own destiny. The best remedies can be supplied but he improves as *he* applies them. The Western Electric experiment may be a shot in the arm, and may have to be kept up for a long time to keep the program alive, and will have

to be revived for each new group of supervisors.

The fundamental weakness of the program as described lies in depriving the executives and supervisors, regardless of their support of present practice, of the opportunity and their essential right to fully direct their own organization. Even when scientifically done the counseling method of securing employee reactions must detract from the influence of the supervisors and cause the employees to give credit to others for improvements in the business. Mr. E. K. Hall, late Vice-President, American Telephone and Telegraph Company, said in a speech in 1922:

If the prime responsibility for the personnel job rests on the executive, where does the personnel man fit in and what is his job? Now, it seems to me, from observation in our own companies and in a great many others, that the answer is very clear; and that is that the personnel man's job is fundamentally an advisory staff position, advisory to the executive. The human factor in industry is the agency through which all the processes of production are carried out. The executive may only delegate his responsibility in connection with these human factors to his own line organization; the human factor is so inextricably tied in with all the processes of the entire works and is such a vital factor in the whole process of industry that it is simply impossible to take that factor and set it out to one side and expect to make a department of it. In our judgment that just simply cannot be done successfully.

The line executive is responsible for results in his division or unit of the organization, and this responsibility must include the building and maintenance of an effective working force and therefore includes the responsibility for training. This applies to every level of the organization.

A recent study by the National Industrial Conference Board on Training Solutions of Company Problems, reports at least three large companies carrying on intensive supervisory development without large staffs. One has 11,500 supervisors and employees in an organized program with staff help of one training director and a clerk. Another large company with over 40,000 employees has one training expert in the headquarters staff. The general managers of local divisions participate in the executive training programs at headquarters and are personally expected to direct the training of their respective organizations. Nowhere in this company is a large training staff employed. In another company where "everybody was muscle bound from holding back" a multiple management program was created, combining the re-

sources of the organization from top to bottom in the management of the company. The success of the Western Electric program can only be judged effectively when compared in a parallel situation to some of these methods over the same period of years. Sometimes a new system is needed, not the revitalizing of the old.

Another interesting study might be the comparison with this experiment of a genuine collective bargaining program in which the correction of employee reactions and supervisory weakness is frankly shared in by employees as a party to an agreement. Can industrial management be more sure through labor union cooperation that it has the right management program and that it works? In other words, can management use its collective bargaining machinery to check the effectiveness of its own policies and program? Public officials may in the future be forced to give serious attention to these points with the growing recognition of employee relations matters in the public service.

ERIC NICOL

Division of Administrative Management
U. S. Bureau of the Budget.

What Is Collective Bargaining. Mollie Ray Carroll. Longmans, Green and Co. New York. 1939. 106p. \$1.75.

Labor Problems in the United States. Mac. H. Donaldson. Longmans, Green and Co. New York. 1939. 256p. \$1.00.

Even those who have carefully considered the question *What Is Collective Bargaining* will find new and stimulating material in Miss Carroll's ninety-eight-page definition. This book offers an excellent discussion of the meaning, implications, and potentialities of a process the significance of which is often obscured by ignorance and prejudice. Many readers may feel that the author is optimistic and idealistic in describing its virtues. Yet few will put the volume down unconvinced that the intelligent application of collective bargaining can bring highly desirable results.

The history of legal provisions recognizing collective bargaining is given in the first brief chapter. The second deals with a description of the bargaining process as it operates in a typical plant or industry where employees are organized. "Collective bargaining takes for granted acceptance of the union. Where the

union must fight for existence, there is little energy left to devote to the understanding of the industry that skilled bargaining demands." The contributions which unions can make to efficient management are stressed—contributions which take tangible form in practical suggestions and intangible form in loyalty and cooperation. Collective bargaining requires union-management cooperation, a joint partnership in production under which each has special functions and contributions to make. "The end result has the more practical strength of both points of view; it is richer and more pointed to the job of production than if it had developed on a narrower or less realistic base." Further developing this concept, the third chapter deals with the internal structure and functions of the union, and with its responsibilities in developing itself as an effective instrument for collective bargaining. "To express the pooled experience of the members through collective bargaining, the union must actively and continually gather and weigh that experience and must build it into a program."

Next, Miss Carroll gives an analysis of bargaining under the National Industrial Recovery Act. She concludes that labor, management, and government were not then ready for tripartite cooperation. Yet she strongly advocates the extension of union-employer negotiation methods to the administration and amendment of legislation. Such an extension would tap the experience of the unions, aid in the separation of policy from administrative functions, broaden the base of policy formulation, and promote cooperation. She hopes that eventually the bargaining process may even be applied to the enactment of labor legislation, as a further and more useful step in the evolution of adequate and pragmatic social legislation.

Many of the substantive and administrative failings of present legislation, she believes, could have been avoided by the utilization of the collective bargaining process. For example, "The storm of union protests against the policy of board determination of the bargaining unit, as carried out under the National Labor Relations Act, is due to the feeling that the board has assumed a major function of the union itself and has interfered with the principle of self-organization." When the Board's rulings result in the invalidation of a union contract, "it violates one of the most basic principles of

organized labor, grounded on the conviction that a primary condition of good faith in any dealings between the union and the employer is the absolute inviolability of the trade agreement." Whether or not one can agree with the conclusions reached, these views stimulate thought along little traveled paths.

The final chapter, a distillation of earlier material, treats of the terms and conditions which must prevail if negotiations are to be productive, first, in the field of industrial relations, and second, in the area of governmental administration.

The book as a whole presents an enthusiastic view of collective bargaining. The author leaves the impression that cooperation in this particular form is the best solution to many of our major problems, the way from chaos to integration. Yet the book is a sincere and scholarly attempt to point the way to greater cooperation and coordination between labor, industry and government. Despite—or perhaps because of—its proselyting means, it represents a valuable contribution to that end.

Mr. Donaldson's *Labor Problems in the United States*, in contrast, falls short of the reader's expectations. Every labor topic of importance to employees, employers or the government, and many unimportant points are considered. The discussion of this wide field, however, is sketchy, staccato, and superficial. The text glides lightly over fundamentals and devotes considerable space to minor details. In the chapter on collective bargaining, for example, there is no definition of the process and no indication of its vital significance in employer-employee relations. The National Labor Relations Act is mentioned a few times as the "Wagner Act," but there is inadequate treatment of its relationship to the subject of collective bargaining.

The author endeavors to treat his subject in an impartial manner, and succeeds fairly well. Such tendency as there is to stress the employer viewpoint arises from a failure to grasp the full significance to all concerned of specific labor problems, and an imperfect understanding of the objectives and psychology of organized labor. The discussion is a combination of simple, accurate, even penetrating statements on the one hand, and questionable generalizations, contradictions and irrelevancies on the other.

For example, on page 26 the author writes: "Since the Wagner Act went into force, company unions have become a nucleus for elements hostile to dominant unions and for the more conservative workmen."

Yet, on page 58, he states: "Since 1935, all types of company unions have decreased, often being superseded by friendly independents. The organization of these has become quite a legal specialty."

The nature of these statements is not due to the fact that they have been taken out of their context. Another example, of an all-too-common confusion between the Federal Old-Age and Survivors Insurance system and the Federal-State Old-Age Assistance program, is illustrated by the following quotation:

"Payments of from \$10 to \$85 a month for each insured worker are contemplated. No exemption applies to employers of less than eight people, as granted under the unemployment tax. The minimum eligible age is 65. States that are more liberal, such as Colorado, must pay all benefits not included under the Federal law."

The list of questionable generalizations could be expanded; two more examples will suffice:

"People are rated as unemployables if too old, sick, inefficient, dishonest or too disagreeable. This group is excluded from most unemployment estimates."

"It is traditional . . . that the doctor's bills are graded to his patient's income and that a professional fee is not 'pay' for work done, but a voluntary expression of gratitude on the part of the patient Perhaps similar adjustments in other fields might alleviate such distress as is due to rigidity of prices."

On the other hand, there are many excellent passages and some examples of "advanced" theory. The book is fairly well documented, and many good references are given. The discussion material is followed by two appendices, one dealing chiefly with comparative union membership, and the other with statistics on strikes and lockouts. A final section on "Questions and Problems" is designed for teaching purposes. In summary, the book is neither fish nor fowl. The elementary student may have his attention held by a staccato style but be misled by lack of attention to fundamentals, and by incomplete references to laws and prob-

lems. The more advanced student will find little meaty, new material in a book primarily designed for the college student.

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Vacations with Pay in Canadian Industry.
Queen's University, Kingston, Ontario. 1939.
82p. \$1.00.

The report of the Industrial Relations Section of Queen's University on *Vacations with Pay in Canadian Industry* consists of twenty statistical tables and some sixty-odd pages of analysis. It is a report to go to sleep over if approached in the usual beginning-to-end manner; but its interest may be enhanced if the last chapter, "The Value and Future of the Paid Vacation Movement," is read first.

In general the report emphasizes the need and increasing demand for paid vacations for the wage earner. "Prior to 1914," it asserts, speaking of world-wide industry, "paid vacation provisions were confined almost entirely to government employees and to salaried employees in private industry." Through labor organizations and through the interception of social-minded persons and agencies the movement for paid vacations has expanded since the post-war period, with the depression interfering only temporarily. The movement appears to be quite universal, even showing itself in legislation in China and South Africa.

The methods for assuring paid vacations for workers are varied. Chief among them are: "(a) custom, individual contracts, and company policy; (b) collective agreement and arbitration awards; and (c) legislation." Since the United States and Canada have not adopted legislation in this respect, the first two methods arise as principal sources of a laborer's yearly rest.

The statistics in the report are based upon a survey of 303 companies replying to a questionnaire. Probably at least one-fifth of all persons regularly employed in Canadian private industry during 1938 are represented in the sample. The companies vary in size from fewer than fifty employees to over ten thousand. They are scattered throughout Canada.

To skip over the proving statistics and to view the conclusions of the report, I quote: "Paid vacation plans for wage earners as well

as for salaried employees have now secured such wide endorsement by employees and employers alike that it is very probable that they will continue to be adopted rapidly throughout Canadian industry. The rapid extension of the movement in recent years to manufacturing enterprises as well as to public utilities, and to small as well as large scale businesses seems likely to continue, especially since the demands for such vacations by organized labour in the mass production and service industries and in mining indicate that employees are desirous of taking part of their share in industrial productivity in this form. The recent movement has reached to companies of every size, practically every type of industry, and every size and type of community. As far as can be observed a high degree of competition in the industry is no barrier to the adoption of paid vacation plans provided that other factors, such as trade union activity or local custom, influence a number of leading companies in the industry to adopt plans at approximately the same time. Continuity of operations is also no barrier, since paid vacations are frequently given to employees as a compensation for continuous service requiring employment on Sundays and holidays. Seasonality of operations is, however, a deterrent to companies in some industries, primarily because the problem of stabilizing employment is more important to both the employees and the employer."

Trends in the provisions of company vacation plans that are predicted by the report do not seem unlikely when applied to our own situation, except as they are more moderate than the demands of labor organizations may require. It is predicted that all permanent employees will be included, and possibly some temporary employees; that groups of employees such as salesmen and agents on commission, and service-station attendants in leased stations, will be included; that the vacation period may be either fixed in length or may increase with length of service; that where the latter condition is true, the periods of long service required for extra vacations will be reduced; that the period of preliminary service required for eligibility is likely to be reduced; that two weeks' vacation will be increasingly provided for wage earners. Two interesting predictions are that accumulation of vacations from year to year will probably not be permitted, and

that employees will, in general, be required to take their entire vacation period at one time, although as the vacation period becomes longer, division may be permitted.

In several places in the report the progress of workers in the United States toward securing plans for vacations shows its influence on Canadian industry. Companies associated with firms in the States reflect the provisions of the parent company.

Points discussed in some detail, with statistics quoted, which may be of interest to individual readers are: "Length of Vacation and Condition of Eligibility for Sales People"; "Amount of Vacation Pay" (for salaried employees); "Time of Vacation" (season of year); "Time of Salary or Wage Payment"; "Legal Holidays with Pay"; "Method of Calculating Vacation Pay" (for wage earners).

The subject of the value of paid vacations seems an obvious one. Companies maintaining paid-vacation plans for wage earners report increased efficiency and better workmanship following the vacation period, reduced labor turnover, more punctuality and less absence, a reduced percentage of sickness and accidents, fewer grievances, and better opportunities for work planning. The need for a period of rest and relaxation free from worries over loss of income is agreed upon both by management and by employees. And so the conclusion, statistics or no, that paid vacations for wage earners will become increasingly common.

RUSSELL COOK

Personnel Division
U. S. Housing Authority.

Public Opinion. William Albig. McGraw-Hill Book Co. New York. 1939. 486p. \$4.00.

William Albig teaches sociology at the University of Illinois and his textbook is designed to meet the needs of college students who want to find out about the present state of knowledge in a new and rapidly expanding field of study and practice. The text is an exceedingly careful piece of work which rests upon conscientious reading of the existing literature. Mr. Albig has published original studies in the field of radio, and some of his results are reproduced in the present volume.

Probably the quickest way to gain an impression of the scope of the treatment is to glance at some of the chapter headings: "The

Nature of Public Opinion," "The Development of Public Opinion," "Communication," "Psychological Processes and Public Opinion," "Language and Public Opinion," "The Leader and Personal Symbolism," "Legends and Myths," "The Measurement of Opinion," and "Propaganda."

There is no more economical way to find out about the present state of knowledge than to study Mr. Albig's book. The reader will be impressed by the richness of the contributions to the subject which have been made in the last ten or fifteen years. There is a sense in which this impression is correct. Only recently have many scholars tried to check on what they said about public opinion by collecting facts. Most of what had previously been said rested on hunch or logical inference. The older scholars had noted most of the generalities that are worth repeating about public opinion, but there was no operational connection between generality and specific time-space situations. These connections are the stock in trade of the rising generation of specialists on the subject.

Students of government will find that the book does not meet their own particular requirements in certain respects. Many topics of great importance to the political scientist are touched very lightly. Students of government are concerned with the methods by which opinion may be brought to bear upon government, as well as by the means available to government to affect opinion. Voting, legislatures, consultative committees, petitions—to enumerate a few devices—are involved in the interplay of government, opinion, and society. What are the effects upon public opinion itself of the methods used to express it?

There is a certain lack of historical perspective in the text. We do not get a sense of the changing place of public opinion in the historical transformations of our time. The student of political sociology will want to trace the connections between public opinion and the fluctuating influence of classes, skill groups, nations, and even personality forms.

The most important thing to be said about the text, whatever the reservations, is that it is now the standard introduction to the field.

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ARTICLE ABSTRACTS

ADMINISTRATIVE MANAGEMENT

1. Davenport, Frederick M. **Why personnel offices need more funds.** *Personnel Administration* 2 (1) Sept. 1939: 5-8.—The President's request last July for certain appropriations for personnel administration is the result of an ever-increasing realization of an acute need for better personnel management in the federal service. Better profits, better management, and an improved public service will insure to the federal government if it takes advantage of modern improved techniques and administration. Unfortunately, however, there can be little expectation that a first rate job will be done in this field of personnel administration until Congress specifies that 2 per cent or 3 per cent of the large sums appropriated for personal services shall be set aside for personnel management. Such funds will provide better insurance on the many millions spent annually for federal salaries.

Meanwhile, the crystallization of the belief that public administration in the federal government is in great need of improvement continues as is evidenced by Executive Order No. 7916 of June 24, 1938, wherein is directed the appointment of personnel directors in the departments and agencies of the federal government. Through the Council of Personnel Administration, these directors of personnel may help coordinate and perfect the civilian service, and aid materially in the protection and improvement of the merit system. Especially because the Civil Service Commission is overwhelmed with operating duties and because there are many phases of personnel administration which cannot be performed by the Commission, the Commission and the merit system need the help of such a coordinating group made up from within the agencies themselves. It is unthinkable that better systems of classification, recruiting, training on the job, promotion, grievance settlement, retirement, etc., giving an opportunity for self-improvement and making it worthwhile for a man to do his best at his work, would not make for a morale which has financial and economic as well as human value.—*A. E. Weatherbee.*

2. Koran, Sidney W. **Adapting tests to machine scoring.** *J. of Applied Psych.* 23 (6) Dec. 1939: 709-719.—One of the important problems confronting the increasing number of users of the new IBM test scoring machine is the adaptation of examination material to the limitations of the device. Several kinds of orthodox test material and certain hitherto unused tests have been constructed and arranged to conform to the limitations and advantages of the IBM machine. The following types of tests, adapted to machine scoring, were successfully used in the selection of an entire personnel of 7,500 for the Department of Public Assistance in Pennsylvania: (1) an alphabetizing test which requires the applicant to arrange names in alphabetical order; (2) a sorting test which is suitable for applicants for positions of postal clerk; (3) a syllabification test which tests ability to recognize words incorrectly divided; (4) a punctuation test of a recognition type in which the applicant designates whether or not a given sentence is correctly punctuated; (5) a spelling test requiring ability to recognize misspelled words; (6) a coding test of the multiple choice variety in which the applicant must work through an entire coding problem before he can record his answer; (7) clerical checking tests in which the examinee records whether certain pairs of names and numbers are alike or different; (8) a paragraph meaning test consisting of a number of short paragraphs in each of which the applicant is instructed to find the one word which spoils its meaning; and (9) a proof-reading test in which the applicant compares a typewritten copy of a paragraph with the original copy and counts the number of errors per line. Separate answer sheets were found to be the most economical method of having examinees record their answers.—*Henry F. Hubbard.*

3. Mandell, Milton. **Problems in decentralization of personnel administration.** *Civic Affairs* 7 (2) Oct. 1939: 3-5.—Many problems arise "as a result of the establishment of field offices . . ." These problems have ordinarily been handled on a basis of personality. However, the question arises as to whether

"this failure to establish harmony is not sometimes the result of improper organization setup, undefined or overlapping responsibilities, lack of administrative authority, and undermining or short-circuiting of the supervisor involved." This problem becomes more important in personnel administration because of the increasing importance of personnel management in efficient administration. It is inquired whether the direct administrative relationship and responsibility should be from branch personnel director to head personnel director of the agency; from branch personnel director to branch manager; or from branch manager to chief personnel director of the agency. The conclusion is reached that if the branch personnel director, "located in a branch where the head refuses to accept his professional recommendations, had not been administratively responsible to central office, he might never have been able to demonstrate the value of the services he was prepared to render." In other words, although his efficiency might not be improved by such an administrative setup, he at least would have an opportunity to show what he can do. If the connection is from branch personnel head to chief personnel officer of the agency, all communications must clear through the branch manager for maintenance of harmony. "With the personnel director on the staff of the branch heads, relationships of the director with division chiefs are facilitated. . . . There is no doubt that this relationship is the desirable one and should be used in all instances where possible."—J. W. Hawthorne.

4. Wilgus, George. *An analysis of the test scoring machine*. *Personnel Administration* 2 (3) Nov. 1939: 1-5.—The experience of the New Jersey State Civil Service Commission shows that the International Business Machines Corporation's electric test scoring machine can save considerable time in the work of a public personnel agency. The machine scores tests by completing electrical contacts through marks made by the examinee with a special pencil on an answer sheet. When the sheet is placed in the machine, the number of right and wrong answers are recorded on a dial when a series of switches are manipulated. Although tests must be adapted by examiners to the limitations of the answer sheet and of the machine, almost any combination or battery of tests may be utilized without sacrificing any of the recognized principles of sound test construction.

The following precautions seem to be advisable in any testing program which makes use of the machine scoring: (1) Careful supervision of examinees by proctors to see that the answer sheets are marked properly; and (2) checking the work of the machine operator to guard against error. The machine itself has a tendency to slight errors when the atmosphere is humid or when the machine has

been operated steadily for several hours. Operators must be careful to watch for such errors and to correct for them. Despite the difficulties and limitations of machine scoring of objective type tests, it seems a conservative estimate to say that it costs one-tenth as much as any of the other common methods in use. It is further estimated that in ten hours one man operating the test scoring machine can do the work of twenty hand-raters scoring at an average speed during the same period of time.—D. T. Stanley.

5. Woolpert, Elton D. *Municipal public relations*. *Pub. Management* 22 (2) Feb. 1940: 43-48.—This article, specifically entitled "Training in Public Relations," is the sixth of a series on municipal public relations and discusses what should be taught to employees on the art of dealing with the public and how the training should be done. The first subject taught should be the city government, including an understanding of its basic program, policies and procedures. This "Know Your Government" program should embrace as many employees as possible and is not only public relations training, but also a step toward a good employee-relations policy, resulting in an improvement in employees' morale and performance. The procedure and art of handling citizen complaints is also an important subject, and courses in giving out information and handling complaints should include training in the proper use of the telephone, preparation of letters, public speaking, and the art of dealing with people—courtesy, tact, attentiveness and the like. Special subjects might well be included in the training program for certain groups of employees such as traffic officers, inspectors and others.

The variety of subjects in the training program requires a variety of training methods. For some purposes lectures may be useful, and as a rule these are made more effective if accompanied by some demonstration such as a motion-picture film or the acting out of actual practical situations. In many cases supervised practice is the most effective teacher. The "conference method" also gives good results. The training course should be summarized and condensed in the form of manuals or guides to good practice.

Supervisory officials must be relied upon to provide the greater part of all public-relations training. In addition to training by supervisors, outside instructors such as teachers of public speaking and other specialists may be useful from time to time. Training in public relations, like all other training, must be designed and altered to fit local needs, and prior to the introduction of such a program an analysis of the public relations duties of all employees, an appraisal of the present shortcomings in their performance, and the selection of those

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subjects and methods of training best fitted to the needs should be made. A word of caution on over-training is added. To date, however, far more city halls are guilty of under-training in public relations than over-training.—*Boynston S. Kaiser*.

[See also abstracts 55, 64]

CLASSIFICATION AND PAY

6. Hammond, A. M. **A salary administration plan for your business—I.** *American Business* 9 (11) Nov. 1939: 11-13, 48.—If a Mary Smith on the pay roll gets *more* raises than she deserves because she is clever at wheedling or demanding, an Olga Kaganovich may get *less* because she is bashful, faithful, or timid. How justify rates from \$75.00 to \$165.00 per month for employees, all doing similar work with the same responsibilities and working conditions? No matter how rationalized, all such inequalities mean one thing—failure to install a modern wage and salary administration plan. Nepotism and favoritism are difficult to curb, but all salary adjustments should be given in accordance with a definite salary plan. This doesn't mean leveling down salaries. Frankness should supplant "confidential" salary increases. Confusion, bickering, and misunderstanding disappear with the introduction of sound classification and pay plans. Accuracy, ability, and production records replace chance and supervisors' whims.—*Albert T. Helbing*.

7. Hammond, A. M. **A salary administration plan for your business—II.** *American Business* 9 (12) Dec. 1939: 24-25, 42.—Position rating and personnel rating are the basic principles of systematic salary administration. The first requires the techniques of job analysis, including "duties' statements," job specifications, and functional groupings. Positions are classified and salary schedules prepared. Rating scales related to a general salary scale for the industry or community are used in setting up schedules for specific positions or classes. Job rating, not performance rating, is the device used. Five basic characteristics make up this personnel tool; namely, (1) responsibilities (2) knowledge, skill and experience required (3) work complexities (4) contacts (5) working conditions. These are broken down into sub-factors, relating to such things as responsibility for supervision, tools or equipment, to schooling and special abilities, or to contacts with the public or other departments. Rating teams, with representatives from the personnel and other departments, assign values through the factors. Comparative wage data are charted graphically, and "rank lines" separate the discovered groupings, starting with the basic entrance jobs and ranging upward from junior through intermediate, senior and principal positions. Weighted averages for each rank are computed, and theoretical mini-

mum and maximum salary rates are set.—*Albert T. Helbing*.

8. Hammond, A. M. **A salary administration plan for your business—III.** *American Business* 10 (1) Jan. 1940: 30-32.—The trend in industrial salaries is away from single, fixed rates, and toward several rates within a class range with minima and maxima rates and systematic plans for shifting from the lower to the higher. Ranges call for setting the basic rate for the lowest key position in each functional group. The graphic analysis of comparative wage data, using a 30% spread between high and low, must be related to job appraisals to offset abnormal influences so as to smooth the differences between existing and proposed rates. Tentative rates are related to comparable community rates. A comparative wage data chart brings to light any peculiarities in the company wage data chart. Tentative ranges, similar to community ranges, indicate the appropriateness of company range limits. Once salary schedules are fixed, adjustments are made in accordance with promotion plans. Seniority should be compensated for by special privileges rather than salary differentials. A definite salary review schedule is good practice. Differentials should be related to merit which is measured or rated. Ratings are necessary to offset the effect of seniority clauses in union agreements. Performance ratings serve other purposes; they indicate faults to be corrected and locate promotional talent. Service rating essentials, if observed, make salary administration systematic.—*Albert T. Helbing*.

9. Kidder, Jerome H. T. **The dictionary of occupational titles.** *Employment Service News* 6 (12) Dec. 1939: 9-12.—The Bureau of Employment Security of the Social Security Board, Federal Security Agency, is about to release to cooperating state agencies a new *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*. Based upon job analysis schedules compiled by crews of job analysts in fifteen geographically distributed cities, the work contains job definitions for over seventeen thousand separate occupations. Each job definition is a summary of the facts necessary to understand a job. The definitions, including job code numbers and indications of the types of industry in which the jobs are performed, are contained in Part I of the dictionary, which also includes a glossary of technical terms used in the definitions. Part II contains all the job titles listed in a group arrangement according to their code numbers. Part III, "Conversion Tables," contains alphabetically and numerically arranged tables showing the possible equivalents among the new code numbers for the former code numbers and job titles used in placement procedures.

The scope and the plan of the dictionary are

such that users can overcome difficulties inherent in the use of one title to indicate a variety of jobs or of a variety of titles to indicate a single job. Beyond application to the employment-security program, it is possible to guess that persons interested in labor and in occupations, statistically and otherwise, as well as personnel and vocational guidance workers, will find use for the occupational material in the dictionary. Comments and criticisms of users will be welcomed in order to furnish guidance for a subsequent edition.—D. T. Stanley.

10. Kidder, Jerome H. T. **New code system adopted with occupational dictionary.** *Employment Security Rev.* 7 (1) Jan. 1940: 17-20.—The new *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* prepared by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Social Security Board, Federal Security Agency introduces a new occupational classification and coding structure. The 17,452 occupations defined in the dictionary have been grouped into about seven thousand job classifications, each classification including jobs requiring the same experience, techniques, and ability on the part of workers. The code numbers are to be used principally to identify employment-office registrations and to report registration and placement statistics. The new system is superior to the present one by virtue of its greater simplicity, its greater accuracy as to skill and title, and its ability to reflect the relationships implied by allocation of jobs to broad occupational groups.

The staff which developed the new structure worked closely with an occupational classification committee sponsored by the Central Statistical Board. The standard occupational classification which was evolved makes it possible to compare the occupational statistics of the Bureau of Employment Security with those of other governmental agencies, such as the Bureau of the Census and the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The system is not expected to have immediate installation in local offices of the cooperating state employment security agencies; rather, it is foreseen that there must be a period of study and training during which operating personnel can become familiar with the dictionary and the new codes and can learn how to use them effectively. It is hoped that the new system is sufficiently comprehensive to allow new jobs to be added and existing jobs to be reallocated without fundamentally changing the classification structure.—D. T. Stanley.

11. Mitchell, Walter, Jr. **Industrial wage and hour surveys for management guidance.** *J. of the Am. Statistical Assn.* 34 (207) Sept. 1939: 482-491.—In addition to other more direct results, New Deal labor legislation has had the healthy effect of persuading "management" to study wage and other labor statistics more carefully than ever before.

Trade executives who have conducted wage and hour surveys have discovered the necessity of designing questionnaires to be of the broadest possible service as well as to provide information concerning the effect of particular laws upon pay rolls and operating problems. In planning the method of sampling to be employed in a survey, care should be taken that the information requested show the seasonal variations in employment and hours of operation, although detailed figures on wages and hours can ordinarily be limited to a single week.

In order that the coverage of a survey may be as complete as possible, it should include low wage as well as high wage plants, and schedules should be mailed to all members of the industry whether members of the sponsoring associations or not. A questionnaire should be simplified as much as the nature of the data will allow. Experimentation has indicated that a frequency tally is ordinarily the simplest method of obtaining adequate information. Such a frequency tally may be of either of two types: (1) a simple tally requesting, by departments or processes, the number of workers drawing various hourly rates of pay, or, (2) a double frequency tally in which no mention is made of the type of job or process but which calls for the number of workers by hourly rates of pay and by hours worked per week. To be of any real value to the industry the survey must present the picture in true focus and perspective. By no means should a questionnaire request average rates paid in any particular process or department, or request only minimum wage rates. The information should be capable of being presented in the form of frequency distributions rather than averages in order that the survey may be as completely representative as possible.—Thelma Hunt.

12. Orear, Stanley T. **Classification in an operating agency.** *Personnel Administration* 2 (2) Oct. 1939: 1-6.—In such an organization as the federal government, where the position classification staff serves both as a regular unit of the department or agency in which it is located, and also as an arm of the central controlling classification agency (the U. S. Civil Service Commission), it is necessary to recognize that the classification unit must serve as a buffer between administrative enthusiasm and the strictness of central regulation. This necessitates considerable educational work in keeping operating officials in line with classification standards, and in informing them of the uses which they can make of an effective classification plan. Early in the development of the classification program in the U. S. Housing Authority was discovered the need for standardizing terminology for personnel actions. The second step was the setting up of a basic procedure for the classification of individual positions, which includes a request for the classification action by the operating

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official; budget review of the request; assignment of the case to a classification investigator and his analysis of the facts and their evaluation in terms of difficulty and responsibility, making use of a newly designed evaluation form developed in the Authority; and review of the recommendations by the classification officer and by the Civil Service Commission. The procedure in large surveys involves preliminary contacts with the operating officials, the filling in of questionnaires by employees, reviewing the questionnaires and sorting them into occupational services, occupational groups, and classes. This is followed by the preparation for each class of a formal definition, which includes a statement of the general character of the work, its level, examples of duties, qualifications required, minimum evidence of qualifications, and an indication of the normal lines of promotion. After this work has been completed, the individual positions are allocated to their appropriate classes and the survey is completed.—Richard W. Cooper.

13. Palmer, Gladys L. *The convertibility list of occupations and the problems of developing it*. *J. of the Am. Statistical Assn.* 34 (208) Dec. 1939: 693-708.—Occupational statistics are collected by numerous public and private agencies. These cannot be correlated or integrated in most instances because of variations in terminology used, and variations arising from classification and coding practices. Interest in securing greater comparability crystallized somewhat over a year ago in the appointment of a Joint Committee on Occupational Classification by the American Statistical Association and the Central Statistical Board. The Committee included representatives from a number of public agencies.

The work of the Committee has resulted in the preparation of a Convertibility List of Occupations. It contains 327 occupational titles listed under 9 major group titles and 8 subgroup titles. The nine major groups include: professional and semi-professional workers; proprietors, managers, and officials; clerical and sales workers; craftsmen and foremen; operatives; domestic service workers; protective service workers; service workers, except domestic and protective; and laborers. The proposed groups were derived in the course of a review of the content of the specific titles of the list and of the experience of the agencies represented on the Committee. The administrative needs of certain agencies also influenced the decision of the Committee in specific instances. The major recommendations of the Committee are that the list of occupational titles be used by all agencies collecting and compiling occupational statistics. It is urged that agencies which can not adopt the Occupational Convertibility List completely publish some tabulations which conform to it. Such usage will place

that phase of labor market or occupational studies which is concerned with comparative analysis on a sound technical basis. The list of occupations presented is not regarded as a final product. It is proposed as a basis of use for a limited period of time, after which it will be reconsidered in the light of experience. Through this process of refinement it is hoped that the list will then be sufficiently broad and flexible to serve as a valid medium of comparison.—Thelma Hunt.

14. Unsigned. *Report on salary scale standards*. *Compass*, 21 (3) Dec. 1939: 7-12.—This is a revised version of a report which the Philadelphia Chapter of the American Association of Social Workers adopted in March 1939. When in 1937 the Chapter adopted the report of the Committee on Employment Practices, a recommendation was made and approved that the Committee begin work on a salary scale. When undertaking the study the committee adopted the principle that: "There are no economic laws which establish inexorably the monetary value of social work. Salary scales in social work can take into consideration generally 'the cost of a professional scale of living,' 'cost of the professional education required,' 'present rates of pay in the community,' and 'the rates of pay in professions requiring similar training.'" The study tried to get something of a representative picture of existing salaries in Philadelphia private social work agencies. Out of the data gathered from nine agencies, the committee felt that it would be possible to place workers' salaries somewhere on a suggested basic scale by means of defining equivalents. The Employment Practices Committee approved a salary scale ranging from \$1800-\$3200 for social workers who have a college degree and at least two years of successfully completed graduate, professional training. The committee favors the overlapping scale outlined as follows:

\$1800	\$2270	\$2610	\$3200
case workers		senior case workers	
supervisors			

The above scale is recommended as desirable because it compares with professional salaries in other fields, takes care of persons who do not develop beyond a certain point, makes provision for recognizing greater capacity and supervisory responsibilities. The committee sees salary increases as normally based on years of service. The committee chose a flat rate of increase rather than a percentage method because it was more workable in setting up scales. It also holds to the general principle that increases should be of a definitely stated amount and become effective yearly for workers within each particular class of positions.—Louis E. Hosch.

[See also abstracts 28, 53]

RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION

15. Anderbert, Rudolf. Selecting personnel for the Swedish State railways with the aid of psychological tests. *Occupational Psych.* 13 (3) July, 1939: 211-222.—In 1934, methods of testing applicants for subordinate jobs in the railways were developed by the psychological laboratory of the University of Upsala. Concurrently, tests were developed to form the basis for the selection of candidates for posts as railway officials. The tests which were developed were based upon the basic abilities necessary for the performance of the work as shown by job analyses. Minimum educational requirements were established, and following the passing of the tests the successful candidates are submitted to an intensive training course and a probation period before being given regular employment. As the training course is of an "all round" nature and not designed for any of the specific occupations, the tests, likewise, must be broad in their scope. The job analyses indicated that tests of intelligence, reactions, attention and memory would provide a sufficiently adequate pattern of abilities. A thirty-five item intelligence test was developed. It is given without time limit and is scored both on the number of items answered correctly and the average time required for each correct answer. The reaction test required the subject to press one button, another button, or refrain from pressing either button when certain objects came in view on a slowly rotating disc. This was scored on the basis of the number of correct responses. The attention test is primarily a letter cancellation test. Certain letters must be cancelled, others circled, and others crossed out. Ten minutes are allowed and two scores are recorded, one, the number of correct markings, and the other, the ratio of number of correct markings made to the actual number that should have been made. The memory test required the study of train numbers, track numbers, and times of arrival and departure. These were then to be repeated from memory after certain leading information was given. Two scores of this test were also used, one, the number of correct answers given, and the other, the percentage of the answers given that were correct. The tests were validated on 117 officials who had been rated as either A, satisfactory, or B, not wholly satisfactory, and critical scores were established. Of the 52 per cent of the officials rated who were rated A, 46 per cent passed all the tests and 6 per cent failed one or more tests, and of the 48 per cent rated B, 19 per cent passed and 29 per cent failed. When the critical scores were raised and the candidates permitted to fall below these higher scores in two tests and not below the original critical scores in any test, 7 per cent instead of the original 6 per cent of the "A" officials failed and 35 per cent rather than 29 per cent of the "B"

officials failed, thus increasing the value of the test battery as a selective device.—*Edgar F. Van Buskirk, Jr.*

16. Dunford, R. E. The adjusted graphic analysis chart. *J. of Applied Psych.* 23 (5) Oct. 1939: 623-629.—One of the most important functions of any personnel organization is the efficient and accurate evaluation of those who apply for employment. The selection of the best available candidates for positions and their proper placement is the first step toward the solution of the many problems confronting a personnel officer. Recently a new tool has been presented which gives some promise of placing the evaluation of the applicant on a more scientific basis. The use of this technique is intended to objectify and render more accurate the means now used in arriving at a final judgment on the qualifications of those who apply for positions. Among other tools which to a greater or lesser degree have been of value are job analysis, tests, application blank analysis, reference letters, and the interview. To these methods, "The Adjusted Graphic Analysis Scale" has been added by the Tennessee Valley Authority following a period of research study. It has had some experimental use, and the results have seemed to justify its further trial and development under practical conditions. Essentially the analysis chart is constructed to separate diagnostic signs of ability and potentiality, and to provide a profile picture of the elements pertinent to probable success on the job. The form consists of a number of separate items indicating the degree to which the applicant has demonstrated probable future success on the job. Age, education, and experience are placed on scales so that dots may be placed at appropriate places along the line. The progressive character of experience and the highest salary ever received may be checked as well as significant references. Experience in other fields is also noted. When the points checked by the examiner are connected, a profile of the applicant will be obtained. This profile will ordinarily be very irregular. If the examiner will draw a line down the page, midway between the points checked, smoothing by inspection, a curve will be obtained. This curve, or line, will offer a seemingly objective index of the potential and actual value of the applicant in question. Each type of curve obtained will have a very definite meaning. One value of the chart lies in the fact that several applicants for the same position can be plotted and compared on the same chart.—*Henry F. Hubbard.*

17. Hopkins, Prys. Psychological tests in the army and air force of foreign countries. *Occupational Psych.* 13 (1) Jan. 1939: 59-63.—Japan—At the Imperial University a truncated fuselage of an aeroplane with the more important controls in position

was mounted so that it rotated around horizontal and vertical axes to determine the degree to which the aviator's normal reactions were disturbed by his being rotated or placed in an unusual position. *Hungary*—Intelligence and aptitude tests were given to select those most likely to profit by special training. Motion pictures were used; in one instance, those taking the tests were required to report what they had seen, and in another, the motion picture was adapted to the testing of the ability to drive a car. The facial expressions of candidates were studied from motion pictures taken secretly while the candidates were subjected to various stimuli, engaged in conversation, and required to perform certain tasks. Another test involved the use of ladders, bars, building blocks, ropes, etc., in which the candidates were required to build a bridge over an imaginary stream. Passage of specified tests was said to be requisite for promotion. *Germany*—Army psychological laboratories made reports on the temperament, character, appearance, speech, handwriting and facial expressions of candidates. An elaborate choice reaction apparatus was used. Vocational tests in motor driving, signalling, wireless-telegraphy, and aviation were in use, the tests for aviation being similar to those used in Japan, but more elaborate. *Russia*—The Russians stated that no tests of the nature mentioned here were in use in the Russian Army, but the Germans stated that such a program was in effect in Russia.—*Edgar F. Van Buskirk, Jr.*

18. Mira, Emilio. **Psychological work during the Spanish war.** *Occupational Psych.* 13 (3) July, 1939: 165-177.—As an army is nothing more than a complex group of war workers, the major problem is to ensure that the best use is made of the men available for the work to be done. Arms and other equipment are not made for the individual but for the mass. As the physical and emotional characteristics of individuals differ so greatly strains are apt to develop in the men if they are not given the equipment for which they are best adapted. To avoid unnecessary strain and suffering is to increase the chance of victory. The selection of new recruits solely on a basis of physical examinations is wholly inadequate. Spanish Republican recruits were required to answer free answer questions based on their conceptions of the meaning of fascism, the duties of a soldier, desired position in the army, desired work after service, and questions designed to determine their susceptibility to war neurosis. Mental and neurotic troubles in 20,000 troops selected in this way were three times less frequent than among those not given any such examination. The classification scheme applied to civilian careers was adapted to the navy military occupations, the only fundamental divergence being the additional factor of place of work. On the basis of place, the

work was classified into three main groups: (a) entirely separated from the firing line, (b) incidental exposure to fire, and (c) on or near the firing line. In this manner only those who were both physically and mentally unfit, as shown in a medical and neuro-psychiatric examination, were rejected, the medical officers then assigning the recruits to specific military tasks. Those in the special services as air pilots, anti-tankists, and guerrilleros were selected by special supplementary tests only after their courage and honesty were proven. These included tests of kinesthetic space perception, vision, and hearing, adapted to the specific work to be done. The timely release of effective information and propaganda can do much to bolster morale. Women were substituted for men in civil occupations and in the auxiliary services of the army in the following order: (a) domestic services, (b) public cleaning services, (c) sales staff of shops, (d) food supply services, (e) public health services, (f) post and telegraph occupations, (g) clerical work, (h) light industries, (i) transport, (j) industry generally, on the basis of their personal records and medical and psychological examinations.—*Edgar F. Van Buskirk, Jr.*

19. Hovland, Carl Iver, and Wonderlic, E. F. **Prediction of industrial success from a standardized interview.** *J. of Applied Psych.* 23 (5) Oct. 1939: 537-546.—The notorious inadequacy of the traditional interview has given rise to improvement in two directions: first, in the development of standardized interviews in which the questions to be asked are carefully prepared in advance; and second, in the use during the interview of rating scales to permit more precise evaluations of various personal traits which are not otherwise amenable to measurement. Both have shown considerable promise, but both have limited usefulness. The present study reports an instrument which has been developed to utilize both of these techniques in a single form. This instrument, called the Diagnostic Interviewer's Guide, provides for the obtaining of the necessary information concerning the applicant in a standardized interview and in addition permits a rating by the interviewer of the applicant's present capabilities and future potentialities as judged by his responses to the questions asked in the interview. This test was developed as a part of the selection program of Household Finance Corporation, a large personal loan organization, which had need of an interview method which would require a short time for administration and could be used by interviewers with relatively little training. A standardized interview combined with a system for quantitative recording of the rating of the applicant by the interviewer was developed to meet this need. The test has four parts. Four pages of questions cover four general areas of the applicants' back-

ground and personal characteristics: (1) work history, (2) family history, (3) social history, and (4) personal history. The correlation between total scores of various interviewers is .71. The corrected odd-even reliability of the entire interview is .82; the two best sub-tests have reliabilities of .57 and .46 and correlate +.14. Results on the validity of the test are given in terms of the average scores on the various sub-sections of the total test at the time of employment made by individuals who succeed and those who are dismissed. The successful group had a higher average score on every section than the dismissed group. The difference in total score is statistically reliable. The two sections showing greatest validity are those on work history and personal history. Work is now in progress on an individual item analysis to provide weights based on their discriminative power to be incorporated in a subsequent revision.—*Henry F. Hubbard.*

20. Lipham, Dorothy R. **Interviewer and interviewee.** *Employment Service News*. 6 (10-11) Oct.-Nov. 1939: 14-16.—Interviewing plays an important part in the employment security program, the ultimate aim of which is to fit the right worker to the right job and, where eligibility can be established, to provide unemployment compensation benefits to tide him over the intervals between jobs. In the steps necessary to arrive at classification and placement of applicants, the trained interviewer uses all available tools such as trade questions, job descriptions, various testing procedures, and a background of knowledge of personnel administration, psychology, and a generous admixture of plain horse sense. The most effective interviewer neither wastes time nor becomes a mere machine for obtaining and recording facts with meticulous care. He tactfully directs every question, every suggestion, every thread of the interview towards getting the information needed for intelligent referral to a job. It is believed that an interviewer has a fundamental responsibility to keep always in mind the principle that interviewing and placing all types of applicants for work is a duty to the public which must be discharged to the fullest of the interviewer's ability.—*R. G. Beers.*

21. McCracken, Robert T. **Character examination in Pennsylvania.** *Am. Bar Assn. J.* 25 (10) Oct. 1939: 873-875.—Since 1928 prospective members of the state bar of Pennsylvania have had to pass both a written and a character examination and to serve an apprenticeship before being admitted to practice. The written examination is prepared and conducted by the State Board of Law Examiners which consists of five lawyers appointed by the State Supreme Court. Character examinations are undertaken by county boards of law examiners appointed by local judges. "Every student at law comes before

the county board twice . . . when he applies for the privilege of registering as a law student and . . . when he applies for the privilege of taking the final examination for admission to the Bar." Each appearance before the board is accompanied by filing an elaborate questionnaire describing the applicant's educational, experiential and personal background. The candidate also furnishes to the board the names of three citizen sponsors and of a preceptor. The latter furnishes aid and counsel during the student's formal law training and the student serves a six months' apprenticeship in the preceptor's office following graduation, as a condition precedent to taking the state bar examination. Two designated members of the county board conduct the character examination, utilizing the questionnaires submitted and calling before them the applicant, his sponsors and preceptor. The services of professional investigators are utilized in some cases. The two board members report their findings to the full board. To sustain a rejection, which may be for a specific reason or, since 1935, for general lack of suitability, a majority of the board must concur in the report. Appeal may be taken to the State Board and from there to the State Supreme Court. All appealed decisions of the State Board have been sustained by the Supreme Court. "Pennsylvania believes in it [the system of character examinations]. It has worked for eleven years. No doubt it may be improved upon and will . . . its foundation is character—character of the student, character of the Preceptor, character of the Board of Law Examiners."—*Robert I. Biren.*

22. Macvaugh, Gilbert S. **Centile and t-scale norms for revised alpha examination, form 5.** *J. of Applied Psych.* 23 (6) Dec. 1939: 720-722.—A centile and a T-scale are presented which are designed to supplement the incomplete centile scale now published for the revised Alpha examination, form 5 (F. L. Wells, 1932). Wells' norms are incomplete because one cannot assign a centile rank to a subject making a score of 60 or less. The present norms are based upon the test results of a random sample of 5,000 adult male prisoners at the United States Penitentiary, Leavenworth, Kansas. Tables are included which show (1) measures of central tendency and variability for the entire group, and (2) the centile rank and T-score corresponding to any raw score on the examination. Despite its limitations, this centile scale is more correctly applicable to adult populations than are concepts of the M. A. and the I. Q.—*Henry F. Hubbard.*

23. Marsh, Harry W. **Examining committees in the Connecticut personnel department.** *Merit Man* 2 (6) Nov. 1939: 135-137.—The personnel department of the state of Connecticut has found the use of examining committees important not only

from the point of view of the results attained in its recruitment program but also from the point of view of good public relations. The examining committees in Connecticut are not limited as they are in most civil service jurisdictions to service in conducting oral interviews but are used in all phases of the examinations, beginning with the statement of duties and qualifications. The services of the committees are most important in examinations for specialized professional and administrative positions requiring a high degree of judgment and intangible elements which are bound up in the personality of the candidate. In the selection processes for these types of positions the oral interview is absolutely essential. Obviously, the success of the oral interview depends upon the ability and character of the oral interviewers. Five criteria are considered in the selection of examining committees: integrity, knowledge of the position, ability to draw out the candidate, objectivity, and willingness to work with a predetermined scoring system. Persons selected to serve on committees may or may not have had practical experience in personnel work. In every case, however, they have been quick to grasp principles and techniques outlined by the examiner from the personnel department staff who meets with them at all their conferences. Outstanding people from the fields of business, education, and the professions have been used on these committees. They have inspired the confidence of the appointing officers, and their importance in building up public sentiment in support of merit system procedure can not be overestimated. They can be made a bulwark against legislative tampering with the system.—R. D. Stover.

24. Parker, R. S. *Educational standards and differential recruitment to the public service*. *Pub. Administration* (Eng.) 17 (4) Oct. 1939: 414-433.—An Australian discusses recruitment to the upper clerical and administrative positions in his own country from the standpoint of British experience and practice at home. While Australia has never followed the mother country's policy of selecting an exclusive class from university graduates in the humanities, there has nevertheless been some discussion of its applicability. The so-called "Macaulay view," which justifies the British administrative class, comes in for considerable criticism. Royal Commissions which have given it a clean bill of health have presented "no concrete justification for their repeated approval of the Macaulay principle in terms of exceptional knowledge or of aptitude for administrative work, or intrinsic psychological endowments on the part of the current members of the administrative class." The satisfactions expressed seem to spring considerably from the predominantly "governing class" backgrounds of the Commission members. The humanities as taught

in the nineteenth century British universities no longer constitute adequate academic preparation for the higher civil servants. These studies must be supplemented by the new social sciences, to which should be added the techniques of administration.

Realistic considerations of Australian politics combine with the dictates of true democratic theory to prevent "the recruitment of an exclusive cadre of public servants by criteria which exclude large masses of the population from competition for economic reasons." The recommendation is to recruit trainees for the administrative class by competition at the time of graduation from the secondary schools. The successful ones would be sent to the universities, during which time they would be attached to specific departments as trainees. Those who survived would at graduation become understudies to senior members in the administrative division.—John M. Pfiffner.

25. Taylor, H. C., and Russell, J. T. *The relationship of validity coefficients to the practical effectiveness of tests in selection: discussion and tables*. *J. of Applied Psych.* 23 (5) Oct. 1939: 565-578.—It has often been pointed out that the magnitude of the correlation coefficient as such is not an adequate representation of the magnitude of the relationship between two variables under consideration. A number of different statistical constants have been proposed by various persons, as giving a more satisfactory representation of the real magnitude of a relationship between two variables. All of the ways of evaluating the correlation coefficient have one fundamental characteristic in common, as might be expected from the fact that they are all closely related to the alienation coefficient. This characteristic is, that as the size of the correlation coefficient increases the extent to which one variable can be predicted from the other increases more and more rapidly. A correlation of .50 is usually considered to be only 13% as good as a correlation of 1.00, while a correlation of .87 is regarded as only half as good as one of 1.00. The widespread acceptance of such measures as the correct way of evaluating correlation coefficients has brought about a considerable pessimism with regard to the validity coefficients which are ordinarily obtainable when tests are tried out in the employment office of a business or industry or in an educational institution. It is disconcerting to apply the customary procedures in evaluating these coefficients and discover that the so-called "efficiency" of these tests is only 2% to 13%. But, it can be shown by charts, particularly with Pearson's "Tables for Finding the Volumes of the Normal Bivariate Surface" as a background, that under the conditions found when tests are used for selection of employees or students, correlation coefficients within the range of .20 to .50 may represent considerably more than 2% to 13% of

the effectiveness of a correlation of unity. Thus, the emphasis in much current literature upon the "k" and "E" methods of interpreting correlation coefficients has led to some unwarranted pessimism on the part of many persons concerning the practical usefulness in an employment situation of validity coefficients in the range of those usually obtained.—*Henry F. Hubbard.*

26. Wonderlic, E. F. *The personnel test: a restandardized abridgment of the Otis s-a test for business and industrial use.* *J. of Applied Psych.* 23 (6) Dec. 1939: 685-702.—The Otis Self-Administering Test (Higher Form) has been widely used in business and industry because it possesses those characteristics of adequate reliability, validity, simplicity and ease of administration, and objectivity of scoring, which are most valued in an intelligence test for business and industry. This test, which had been standardized and validated upon small children, proved unsatisfactory for adult groups. An abridgment of the Otis test, standardized upon adults in business and industry, remedied these defects. The abridgment was called the "Personnel Test," rather than intelligence test, in an effort to eliminate the hesitancy often evidenced towards an intelligence test, and the fear of being rejected because "of lack of mental ability." The test requires only twelve minutes to administer, is reliable, valid, easy to score, and useful in a number of industrial situations. To be included, each individual test question had to prove valid according to three successive criteria: (1) a question had to differentiate between successful and unsuccessful industrial employees; (2) items were selected, which differentiated between good and poor school records; and (3) biserial coefficients of correlation were computed between total score in the test and the passing or failing of the individual items. The reliability of the Personnel Test was measured both by correlation between parallel forms and by the split-half technique. In comparing the reliability coefficients of the two forms of the tests A and C, it was found that the Personnel test gave about as reliable an indication of the individual's ability in twelve minutes as did the Otis test in twenty minute period. The validity of the Personnel Test was ascertained indirectly by the method of construction, correlation with other tests, and prediction of industrial success. The Test was correlated with the original Otis test, and with the American Council Test, and the correlation with the former was +.81 to +.87, and with the latter, +.79. The third indirect method of testing validity was by specific determination in the actual industrial situation, rather than in academic situations, which has been the procedure with many other tests. In these last-named studies, effectiveness of the test in predicting job success is demonstrated.—*Henry F. Hubbard.*

27. Unsigned. *The selection of captains in the New York City department of correction: promotion test analysis.* *Pub. Personnel Q.* 1 (1) Dec. 1939, Jan., Feb. 1940: 1-33.—An analysis is made of an essay type test in which a restricted form of answer was required and the examiners provided with a scoring key. Each of the forty test items is quoted in the text. The chance-half coefficient of reliability for the test itself was found to be .92. The coefficient of reliability for the scoring (called objectivity in the report) was found to be .96. The test, therefore, "is about as good as the best standardized objective tests."

"There is little relationship between the selectivity [correlation between item scoring and rating in entire examination] values of items for the whole group of 240 candidates and for the pass group of 20 persons. . . . In general, for the pass group, those questions which are most difficult possess greatest differentiation ability." Before the test grades were reported to the candidates, the ratings were adjusted where considerable discrepancies between the raters existed. The average of the independent ratings correlated .91 with the average of the ratings after such adjustment.—*Ross Pollock.*

[See also abstracts 2, 4, 52, 53]

INDUCTION; PLACEMENT; SERVICE EVALUATION

28. Austin, William Lane. *Jobs and the census. Occupations* 18 (5) Feb. 1940: 334-337.—"There is one truly impartial source for statistics regarding occupations; the Bureau of the Census." On their "tables . . . one must depend for information on future needs for specialized types of training, decreasing needs for older skills, and progressive or regressive trends within standard occupations. . . . From 1790 to 1900 . . . the census had not reached the degree of scientific value it now has. It was taken by a purely temporary staff, and not much attention was paid to scientific facts, since the original reason for census taking was solely to determine the re-apportionment of the members of the House of Representatives. . . . Since those days, however, the census has taken on an increasingly valuable function of sociometrical and econometrical reporting for scholars, business, industry, and public and private planning agencies. Today . . . the comprehensive economic and social statistics which will be forthcoming from the 1940 Census of Population . . . will furnish vocational counselors with their most useful guide to the nature and condition of the various occupational classifications in this country." There will be "special questions . . . [on] unemployment . . . asked of a 5 per cent sample [which] will indicate the extent to which Americans are being forced, through the results of the depression, to work at trades other than those for which

they were trained." A picture of the oversupply of various skills and data concerning the comparative earnings in various types of occupations will result. "Study of some of the broader social and economic statistics will give a clearer view of the American scene, and of the possibilities for achievement and advancement for the men and women who need advice as to their vocation." Analysis of the tables should provide information regarding current trends in movements of population, shifts in employment, changes in agriculture and other industries, the adequacy of housing facilities, as well as other pertinent data for counselors, placement officers, and public administrators.—*Willard E. Parker.*

29. Presgrave, Ralph. **Effort rating.** *Advanced Management.* 4 (5) Fall 1939: 126-133.—"Effort" rating is one of four methods of adjusting actual recorded timings to compensate for the degree of productivity shown by the operator while the [time] study was being taken. Three other methods of correcting observed time study data are criticized. After such criticism it is concluded that ". . . effort, speed [or] tempo . . . is the only factor in time study which provides any logical basis for mathematical adjustment of recorded times." That adjustments are necessary is shown by observed variations in operator speed of normally 50 per cent, occasionally over 100 per cent, and even in the same operator of 20 per cent to 30 per cent. "Normal" speed is suggested as a reference point and is defined as "normal unstimulated effort by a normally competent person doing a job correctly." With proper incentives mine run operators should exceed this norm by 25 per cent to 30 per cent, while "fast" operators should exceed it by 50 per cent to 75 per cent. By analogy to typing and walking it is shown that "effort" for unusual individuals for short periods may rise as high as 250 per cent above the norm.—*Donald J. Sublette.*

30. Robbins, Bernard S. **Neurotic disturbances in work.** *Psychiatry.* 2 (3) Aug. 1939: 333-342.—Personal attitudes of neurotics toward work range from mild distaste to intense hatred, and from complete shunning to compulsive passionate attachment. Difficulties in work are symptomatic manifestations of total disturbances in personality structure and in interpersonal relations. Such difficulties may be classified according to the types of disturbances in work aim and function by which they are characterized. Disturbances in aim are (1) unrealistic ambitions, or the occurrence in adulthood of childish dreams of heroic achievement and miraculous discovery; (2) grandiose aims—goals either extravagant in themselves or beyond the potentialities of the particular individual; and (3) ambitionlessness or withdrawal from possibility of accomplishment,

due either to a defeatist attitude or to a lack of necessity to work. Difficulties encountered in the actual exercise of effort may range anywhere from mild inhibitions to total paralysis or inertia. Anxieties from many sources operate to produce such difficulties in the neurotic—fears of failure and humiliation, loss of affection and admiration, and desire to preserve whatever partial integration may still be present. Broadly speaking, dysfunctions in work divide themselves into two gross areas; energy is misdirected or is partially or completely inhibited. When ambitions are limitless and exalted, with powerful drives to achieve distinction in a variety of fields, then energies become misdirected in the frantic pursuit of fantastic aims. Frequently, expansive aims as such seriously inhibit the exercise of exertion. There are any number of factors that operate in paralysis of effort, but for the most part, states of inertia spring out of deep hatred against working. All neurotics do not take the same attitude towards work. Some indulge in it passionately though they despise it in order to alleviate their anxieties, and others overtly despise work and avoid it as if it were a poison. A study of work disturbances is very important in the therapeutic treatment of the neurotic because while they are merely manifestations of more widespread disturbances in the whole structure of the individual, yet they may themselves lead in turn to further characterological distortions.—*Henry F. Hubbard.*

31. Super, Donald E. **Occupational level and job satisfaction.** *J. of Applied Psych.* 23 (5) Oct. 1939: 547-564.—Hoppock and Spiegler have recently studied the extent of job satisfaction and its relation to variables such as personality traits, managerial policies, trade union membership, marital status, age, sex, reasons for the choice of an occupation, reasons for the lack of job satisfaction, education, occupational level, intelligence, and the use of counseling services. The purpose of this investigation was to determine the relation of occupational or socio-economic level, and especially of changes in that level, to job satisfaction. The effect of the discrepancies between vocational aspiration and achievement was also analyzed. The subjects studied were 273 men from 20 to 68 years of age, their mean age being 38. Selected for this study as members of avocational or hobby groups, these men were asked for the following data: age, education, special training, occupational history, avocational history. The major findings were as follows:

1. Slightly over 60 per cent of the group were satisfied with their jobs.
2. There is a significant, but not linear, relationship between occupational level and job satisfaction.
3. Two occupational scales were found to exist: one of white collar workers; the other of manual.

Professional occupations are most productive of job satisfaction, managerial next, commercial least, in the white collar scale; skilled occupations rank highest in the manual scale.

4. These scales overlap when compared in terms of productivity of job satisfaction, the skilled and the semi-skilled groups (two highest manual) ranking above the commercial group (lowest white collar) in job satisfaction.

5. Amount of change of occupational level had little, direction of change considerable, effect on job satisfaction.

6. Maintenance of the highest attained occupational status is the important factor in the relationship of change of occupational level to job satisfaction.

7. Roughly 70 per cent of the group had never changed occupational level.

8. "Aspirational discrepancy" or the size of the gap between present occupational level and the level aspired to, is negatively related to job satisfaction.

9. The nature of the work appeared as the most frequent reason for disliking a job; economic reasons, second; and managerial policies, third.

10. Job satisfaction was found to develop cyclically, older adolescents (20-24) tending to be satisfied with their jobs, young men (25-34) dissatisfied, and older men satisfied, with a possible temporary decrease at ages 45-54.

11. There is a tendency for men to rise in the occupational world as they get older.—*Henry F. Hubbard.*

32. Walker, George A. **Achievement tests aid C. C. C. educational advisers.** *Occupations* 18 (4) Jan. 1940: 262-265.—"As a result of experience gained from interviewing several hundred enrollees and conscientiously filling out the personal history forms furnished by the camp, it was realized that this procedure was inadequate to place these young men in academic, vocational, and avocational pursuits suitable to their needs and interests. Since there is a wide range of ability and grade placement among C. C. C. enrollees, no single program could meet the needs of all." Consequently, it was decided with the help of experts from the University of Iowa, that the 1936 "Iowa Every Pupil Test of Basic Skills" be given to the entire company totaling 168. These tests resulted in more adequate placement for the boys on their proper educational levels for training and provided more accurate information for vocational counseling.

Further indications were that there exists a "tremendous range of ability or of educability in the total camp group." About 25 per cent of the enrollees are below the fifth grade level in reading ability and related skills needed in study, while about 10 per cent are above the level reached by

high school graduates or even second year of college. The average for the camp falls between the sixth and seventh grades. Dr. Lindquist concludes "certainly no single education program can serve the needs of these extremes and it would be decidedly unfair to require them all to follow the same routine." A number of the boys are capable of filling jobs on higher occupational levels, but the bulk of them are too retarded educationally to be likely to succeed on anything but routine laboring work or semi-skilled jobs. These boys could profit most by simple vocational training and a good citizenship program adapted for a very low educational level.—*Willard E. Parker.*

[See also abstracts 9, 10, 53, 54, 55]

TRAINING

33. Decker, D. D. **A practical supervisory training program.** *Personnel* 16 (2) Nov. 1939: 62-66.—The policy of the Wolverine Tube Company, Detroit, in training supervisors is to use several methods, rather than one, for it is their belief that successful training frequently requires a fundamental change in attitudes. For the training of the young supervisor—who has been selected on the merits of interest, ability, and potential leadership—an understudy course requiring a maximum of sixteen months has been set up. During this period the understudy's progress is carefully watched and he is notified of his progress, or lack of it, at frequent intervals. At least once a year each supervisor must rate every man of his crew and he must be able to review the report with the individual subordinate rated and explain "why" he so rates the man. These periodic ratings provide a valuable means of supervisory training. A review of all plant operations, visits to other concerns, advice from the foremen and the personnel department are included in the training course. The older supervisors, too, are given the opportunity to get experience in other departments during slack periods, to attend study classes, Tri-State Foremen's Conferences, etc. Reading matter in the way of books and articles is provided by the supervisory program.

Supervisors and understudies are impressed with the fact that while both *esprit de corps* and discipline are needed in their departments, of the two *esprit de corps* is the more important. The need of team work and the mutual exchange of ideas with their crews is emphasized in supervisory training. In line with this theory the supervisors of the company were called together to work out and recommend statements of policies and rules of the company, which were subsequently taken to the employees through the shop stewards of the union. After approval by the employees' group, the proposed statement was presented to the management for the approval of the directors. After this ap-

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proval, the statement was published and distributed among employees. The company believes the reason for the cooperation of the employees in living up to the purpose and policies as stated is largely due to the active part which the supervisory and employee groups had in formulating the statements.

—Dick Carlson.

34. Hader, John J. **A state-federal program for training employment security personnel.** *Employment Service News* 6 (10-11) Oct.-Nov. 1939: 6-8.—A survey of staff training programs in State placement and benefit paying agencies reveals that solid gains are being made in the establishment of training as a recognized part of the management of these combined agencies. At least twenty-four of the fifty-one agencies have designated someone as the joint training supervisor. Since most of the combined state agencies have staffs of over 250 employees, and some of them run as high as 5,000, there is clearly a need for an organized approach to the training problem and the establishment of clearly defined functions for the supervisor of training responsible for carrying on this work. It is clearly the first duty of the training supervisor to have a well worked out training program. Obviously considerable training has been done merely to get these agencies into operation, to pay benefits, and to place unemployed workers in jobs. Nevertheless, there remains the problem of establishing long-range training aimed at reducing operating costs; increasing over-all efficiency; producing a smoothly running organization; and developing personnel that know and understand their places in the organization, and that are themselves growing along with the agency as it accomplishes its primary purposes. A complete program of training for the 36,000 employees of the state employment and benefit paying agencies may be developed through the unified efforts of executives and training staffs of the states, working cooperatively with the federal staff.—R. G. Beers.

35. Hepler, Chester W. **Training on the job.** *Employment Service News* 6 (12) Dec. 1939: 17-18.—State employment services have become increasingly training conscious during the past two years with the result that the relative effectiveness of various training methods is a live subject for discussion. Too often training is thought of only as a formalized process, and insufficient attention is given to day-to-day training on the job, which often proves the most effective method of all, because the use of this method is taken for granted. In planning and organizing for training on the job, we begin with the premise that supervisors have a complete knowledge of the jobs for which they train others and know how the duties may best be performed. Furthermore, it is recognized that supervisors should consider each contact with subordinates as a train-

ing contact. It is the job of the supervisor to instill into employees a desire to learn about their jobs and everything associated with their work, to help employees realize the importance of their work and to understand its relationship to every other operation in the office. Training on the job is essentially individual instruction based on an analysis of shortcomings of each employee in his job. It usually begins with a demonstration by the supervisor, followed by performance under observation and subject to criticism. Although execution of training on the job is properly the responsibility of operating supervisors, training specialists play an important part in the formulation of general policies. Undoubtedly, training of this character is being conducted to some extent in every state employment service, but usually in a desultory fashion and largely without being recognized as training. It can accomplish more if it is planned and carried forward with conscious intent and given status as a training method.—R. G. Beers.

36. John, Walton C. **The foreign service officers' training school.** *School Life* 25 (3) Dec. 1939: 70-71, 85.—"Experiential" assignments, lectures and seminars characterize the learning process at the Department of State's Foreign Officers' Training School in Washington. Four to six months is its duration. J. Klahr Huddle is director and the faculty consists largely of State Department officials. Students are foreign service officers, originally selected after a series of grueling competitive tests, who have already experienced one year of probationary field service in either the diplomatic or consular branch. The Executive Order of June 8, 1931, brought the present school into being. A thirty-day course under a former order had proved unsatisfactory. Even the present course fails to meet the needs of the department for highly trained personnel. This is particularly true since 1939, when the foreign services of the Departments of Commerce and Agriculture were consolidated with the State Department. Further training is now provided for a selected few whose expenses are paid at representative universities where they pursue graduate studies in such subjects as economics and finance. Through the school, officers of the Department of State become acquainted with their new personnel and the students learn at first hand just what is expected of them. If they meet expectations and complete the course successfully their probationary status is ended with a permanent assignment.—John Steven.

37. Michelmore, Laurence. **University in-service training for public employees.** *Pub. Management* 21 (10) Oct 1939: 299-301.—The federal George-Deen Act of 1936 provided grants-in-aid to publicly supported universities for establishment of training programs for public employees. When funds were made available the School of Public Affairs and

Social Work of Wayne University organized non-credit courses especially for public employees in the Detroit area. The program included 24 courses involving 33 classes with a total registration of 1,200 public employees, and instruction was given in assessing, policing, personnel, public parks, public works, office work, welfare, urban transportation, and general government. The most popular courses were those which paralleled a departmental function. Apparently the desire to learn more about the immediate job is greater than the desire to develop a general background.

In most cases department or bureau heads acted as instructors, while occasionally instruction was given by members of the staffs of Wayne and neighboring universities. Although visual materials and other aids such as slides, films, and wall charts were used, chief reliance has been placed on lectures and class discussions. George-Deen funds have made it possible to keep fees substantially below those for regular university work, the present range being from \$1.00 to \$3.00. There are no educational prerequisites, and courses are usually scheduled to correspond to the regular university semesters, with classes being held from 5:00 to 7:00 in the afternoon, or from 7:00 to 9:00 in the evening. Examinations are sometimes included, and "completed" or "non-completed" grades are occasionally given. A committee of public officials and university representatives has been organized to assist in integrating the program with the public departments. Excellent cooperation has been received from the civil service commission, the heads of the operating departments, the City Employees Association, and the Detroit Bureau of Governmental Research.

The program has shown that supervisors and employees will actively support training courses which are directly related to the performance of everyday tasks, and are willing to register for courses with fees up to \$3.00. The training courses contribute to an employee's ability to perform his duties more effectively, and an improved morale has resulted from the increased interest in the problems and work of the various agencies. Individual differences among employees, which in many cases have been entirely unsuspected by supervisors, have been disclosed. There are a number of problems still to be solved in connection with this program, probably the foremost of which is the relation of this particular activity to other training endeavors. Determinations will have to be made concerning the training activities to be undertaken by the university as compared with those involved in an in-service training program, and a number of questions involving the establishment of course standards have been raised. There is also a lack of organized teaching material in many fields and an absence of trained instructors. The program has shown that

experienced administrators acquire very commendable teaching techniques within a short time.—*Boyn-ton S. Kaiser.*

38. Moore, Lyman S. **Training for public service.** *Occupations* 18 (1) Oct. 1939: 32-37.—One-hundred seventy-thousand governments in the United States employ more than three million public employees to perform the myriad functions of government. An increasingly large number of jobs in the public service are coming to be regarded as careers. How shall we insure that incumbents in such positions have the requisite training? "In former days we might have relied on the school of experience to teach public employees their tasks, but events are moving too rapidly now and experience is an expensive teacher." There are approximately 150 schools which recognize, in full or in part, an educational responsibility for providing graduates with intellectual equipment, general knowledge, and social background for a public service career. Most of these schools have concluded that, aside from the usual professional courses, the general background acquired from the liberal arts curriculum is the best contribution the institution can make to the training of future public employees. Among the limitations which prevent colleges and universities from doing the whole job are (1) insufficient experience in public service training; (2) the lack of assurance that their graduates will be properly placed; and (3) the functions of government are becoming so specialized and the requirements of the public service are changing so rapidly that no amount of pre-entry training will completely prepare a prospective public employee. Therefore, government itself must assume most of the responsibility. Training should be continuous and is the major responsibility of the administrator.

To be successful, a government training program must be based on the interests of the employees, the priority of need for the government which they serve, and must also be related to the experience of those who are being trained. Educational standards and principles which have been thoroughly tested should be rigorously applied to public service training, and at the same time, there must be a willingness to experiment with new methods. A recent survey of the in-service training program for federal employees reveals that seventeen distinct methods are in use. "Co-operation of many agencies—governments, educational institutions, professional organizations of public officials, public employee organizations—will be necessary if public service training is to move ahead along sound lines on a wide front."—*Willard E. Parker.*

39. Mosher, William E. **Training administrators at Syracuse.** *Personnel Administration* 2 (4) Dec. 1939: 10-14.—The public administration course at

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Syracuse University was first offered in 1924, to prepare, as its founders stated, "specially qualified graduates for careers in public administration." In the present campaign for better administration it is important that there be scholars to plan the attack and equally important that there be an enlightened citizenry ready to support the assault. But no less important is the training of a group of young men capable of applying the best methods of public administration to local problems and conditions in the day-to-day operations of government units. The Syracuse public administration course proceeds on the basic assumption that an organized body of knowledge on administrative matters is available, and that it is teachable and learnable. In the course the school has attempted to introduce its students to the more important fields of knowledge which the administrator will find useful. During the first year of the two-year course, emphasis is placed on the so-called "staff" or overhead activities. In the second year, the emphasis is on the "line" activities of administration. In none of the fields is any attempt made to produce skilled technicians; the emphasis is rather on giving the students a grasp of the scope of the subject, the language which it employs, and the ways in which it may be useful to the general administrator. In the summer intervening between the two years of study, the students gain practical experience by being placed in temporary positions in governmental or private agencies. After completing his supervised study, each student must submit a thesis in order to receive the degree of Master of Science in Public Administration. All theses are research jobs which governmental officials or private research agencies want done and are willing to pay for.

The staff which conducts the public administration course includes staff members of the university and public administration practitioners. Since the course was first offered fifteen years ago, one hundred and twenty-seven students have completed the residence requirements for their degrees. All of these today are employed, more than 90% with governmental agencies, or private organizations doing research in the field of government. It is not assumed that the public administration course through some magic transforms an average student into an able executive: course members are carefully selected from a large field of applicants.

Critics of the plans of teaching public administration have often said that all the university can hope to give is a broad liberal background, and that the best teacher in learning the art of administration is experience. The School of Citizenship and Public Affairs recognizes this point of view by providing as much direct contact with administration as is feasible. But it also holds that there is a con-

siderable body of learnable techniques and methods of an administrative character which can be introduced in a condensed and concentrated period. The progress made by the students who have studied public administration with a vocational emphasis leads one to believe that there is merit in the program outlined above.—*Glenmore Wilbur*.

40. Turner, Ralph E. *The social approach to employee training*. *Personnel Administration* 2 (3) Nov. 1939: 10-12.—The cultural change which may be summarily described in phrases such as "the rise of democracy," "the advancement of science," "the elaboration of technology," and "the growth of social interdependence" has created out of the passive-policeman or arbitrative state, whose role "has consisted of the judicial determination of right claims to wealth and the executive enforcement of such claims," the administrative state, "which acts through the continuous performance of tasks that constitute services to the people." Because neither traditional attitudes nor general education provide orientation to the role of the new administrative state, training materials "which bring the employee to realize the social purpose of his job, and which equip the employee with the knowledge and the techniques necessary for the performance of the job" must be developed with specific reference to the job to be performed. Training is chiefly a function of supervision, but the proper organization of training requires that an independent training staff implement "internal or self-criticism by employees and administrative officials alike" in order to maintain a teacher-pupil rather than a boss-employee relationship between employees and those responsible for training, and that it carry on continuously "research into job routines and the assimilation of materials related to them, as well as actual instruction." The methods used by the staff supplement, but cannot be confused with or substituted for, those of administrative officials.—*Richard H. Custer*.

CONDITIONS OF WORK AND EMPLOYMENT

41. Armstrong, T. O., and Duffus, H. B. *The Westinghouse safety inventory*. *Personnel J.* 18 (6) Dec. 1939: 211-218.—Every well-conducted business requires that time be taken each year to "take stock" or inventory raw materials, work in progress, and completed apparatus. Why not inventory periodically your accident prevention work? Westinghouse started safety inventories in 1937. Immediately after the plant's regular inventory, "safety inventory cards" are distributed to each and every employee requesting each individual to "take stock" of his or her own situation with respect to safety. In general, the 1938 inventory questions were designed to check the knowledge of the

employee of the equipment surrounding him, which he used every day to make his workday a safe one. In the 1939 inventory, questions were designed to create interest and develop a consciousness in the employee of the health side of our program and the effect of lost time due to personal reasons beyond our control. Each year through this medium we are able to measure the employee's attitude toward our program, and best plan the year's program having his approval and cooperation. In the 1938 inventory, 2025 cards were distributed and 1904 were returned completely filled out. On the basis for planning your next year's program the safety inventory is very worth while. As a measure of the job done over the past year the safety inventory is excellent. We are gratified to know that in the main the employees not only were enthusiastic about presenting their point of view, but they believed in our safety program, they wanted it continued, and they wanted it enforced.—A. E. Weatherbee.

42. Kelly, Roy W. Safety fundamentals for the federal service. *Personnel Administration* 2 (2) October 1939: 12-13.—Statistics reveal an appalling accident toll among federal employees, 1,328,000 of whom have been injured during the last twenty-two years. Accidental injuries cost Uncle Sam \$50,000,000 a year. Private industry has a far better safety record because of the systematic measures which have been taken to reduce the number of accidental injuries suffered on the job. The work of the National Safety Council and the rise of the profession of safety engineering have been part of a parade of progress in which the federal government has very definitely lagged behind. The research, educational, professional, and technical facilities of the government have been partly mobilized through the activities of the Interdepartmental Safety Council, and a few departments are now beginning to include safety engineering among their budget items for appropriations, but a great deal still remains to be accomplished.

Three requirements are essential in assuring the success of an accident-prevention program in a federal agency: (1) Appointment of a properly qualified safety engineer; (2) establishment of accident prevention as a major management function receiving appropriate, systematic consideration on the part of the chief administrative officials of the service; and (3) establishment of an adequate system to record both the direct and contributory causes of accidents and both severity and frequency rates. Such a successful program will result in the saving of public money and the protection of public employees.—D. T. Stanley.

43. Kossoris, Max D. A statistical approach to accident prevention. *J. of the Am. Statistical Assn.*

34 (207) Sept. 1939: 524-532.—An adequate system of reporting the causes of accidents is indispensable to the successful operation of a safety program. At the present time in nearly all states the statistical codes used under the workmen's compensation law indicate the object or accident type primarily responsible for the injury—but not the cause of the accident itself. The way is now open for statisticians dealing with data based on workmen's compensation records to furnish the type of data wanted by safety men for progress in accident prevention. During the last year a sub-committee of the American Standards Association under the chairmanship of H. W. Heinrich has completed a provisional draft of a standard accident code, popularly known as the "Heinrich Cause Code." The underlying philosophy of this method of analysis is that industrial accidents are due to unsafe conditions and unsafe practices, which, if eliminated, would prevent a repetition of the same or similar type of accident. The effort therefore is to enable the statistician to identify and select the unsafe factors and then present the data to safety engineers for guidance in accident prevention.

Under this method of analysis, an accident is considered from six angles: (1) the defective object, or agency, with which the injury is most closely related, such as a saw, a tool, etc.; (2) the defective agency part most immediately involved, such as the gears of a lathe, the door of an elevator, etc.; (3) the unsafe mechanical or physical condition of the selected agency; (4) the accident type; (5) the unsafe act resulting in the selected accident type; (6) the unsafe personal factor which led to the unsafe act. The new method furnishes safety engineers, factory inspectors, and regulatory official bodies generally the information they need.—Thelma Hunt.

44. Padway, Joseph A. Minnesota supreme court deals a death blow to the "loan shark." *Am. Federationist* 46 (9) Sept. 1939: 975-979—"A decision of vital importance to Labor was recently rendered by the Supreme Court of the state of Minnesota. It holds that 'loan sharks' may be enjoined from doing business in violation of law. It further holds that a receiver may be appointed to take possession of the loan shark's office and make certain that the injunction is not violated. . . . While usury laws prohibiting high rates had been adopted in almost all of the states, they were ineffective because they were dependent upon lawsuits instituted by the borrower" which he usually cannot afford. "In states without regulatory small loan laws, practically all small loans are made by the 'loan shark' at exorbitant rates, such as were found to exist in Minnesota at the time the Minnesota injunction case was started. The Minnesota Court has pointed out one way in which this illegal business may be stopped.

. . . The basis of the suit was that the operation of such business was against public policy and constituted a public nuisance. The trial court granted a temporary injunction on October 28, 1938, and appointed a receiver who promptly shut down the business and took possession of the notes and documents of the loan company. The Metro Loan Company appealed to the Supreme Court."

A brief filed by the American Federation of Labor as "friends of the court" outlined the vicious nature of the loan shark business operating with "an aura of legality thrown about the devices to evade the usury statutes" but employing "many and devious methods of deceit, evasions, chicanery, and ruthless methods of collection. . . . The result is that the business inevitably leads to social deterioration, economic helplessness, unemployment, poverty and despair on the part of the borrowers, public charity for their families and a substantial lowering of the general welfare of the people." The Supreme Court upheld the trial court in its use of the injunctive method "to protect the helpless and the poor, always present in every community, from the rapacity of the money lenders who exact usury." —E. B. Shultz.

45. Unsigned. **Workers at play.** *Personnel J.* 18 (6) Dec. 1939: 227-232.—The part that industry can take in aiding in the provision of recreation for workers was recently discussed in two sessions at the annual meeting of the National Recreation Association. It was generally agreed that it must be and is good business to have an active interest in a recreational program for workers; that morale and business go hand in hand, and, that recreational programs do help in morale building; that increased efficiency on the part of the workers often results; that a company having recreational activities and facilities attracts better citizens to its place of business; that workers generally are proud of such a company and state as much through the various recreational activities; and that such a program assists in developing new leadership in the organization. A recreational program must not be paternalistic, however. It must be a program that the employee wants. Moreover, the company must not be meddlesome in the recreational affairs. It should recognize the program, help it, and probably will have to provide the spark to set it in motion, but the program, in order to continue successfully, must continue on its own momentum with the employees carrying it on because they want it. Financing recreational programs is carried on through membership sales to employees at so much per year, allocation of so much money by the company, or candy and cigarette sales, etc. It is felt that perhaps employees should pay a part of the expense incidental to the program as such a practice tends to keep up in-

terest in the activities. Then, too, such programs can often be carried on and financed through cooperative plans or coordination with social agencies of the community for an allround program for the benefit of the worker, the management, and the community. Meanwhile, we can train workers for recreational work for industry; we can collaborate with schools and colleges on training making use of available facilities, etc.; we can build in the schools a philosophy of recreation; we can get together with members of our park commission, our school board, our recreational men already in industry, our social agencies, and our union people. There is no reason why labor, management and those who have to do with and administer recreation within a municipality cannot get together if they want to do so. The result is for the good of all.

—A. E. Weatherbee.

[See also abstract 49]

EMPLOYEE RELATIONS

46. Corson, John J., and Smith, Ilse M. **Federal policies on employee relations.** *Personnel J.* 18 (4) Oct. 1939: 151-159.—The whole subject of relations between the Federal government and its employees has, until recently, received little ordered study or consideration. In Executive Order No. 7916, of June 24, 1938, the President directed each executive department and designated independent agencies to establish a division of personnel supervision and management. Even in the short space of two years, the employee relations policies and practices of these divisions have been developed, strengthened and clarified. Many agencies of the federal government have issued written statements to their employees concerning the relations between management and employees, and these statements provide what is probably the best indication of the status of employee relations in the federal government. At least thirteen federal agencies report that some formal statement on the subject of employee relations is already in effect. Perhaps the next major step in the development of federal employee relations will be wider formal adoption of methods for increasing cooperation between management and employees on personnel and employment policies. Although the employee relations statements vary in origin and particulars, they have three significant objectives in common. First, they strive to insure that the work program and, consequently, the interests of the public will be of paramount importance at all times. Secondly, the statements endeavor to protect employees' interests by officially marking out certain rights and immunities for them. The third objective is the facilitation of personnel administration by systematizing employee contacts. From the standpoints of both management and employees, these objectives are

unquestionably desirable. On the whole, probably practice follows policy. The very existence of formal employee relations statements is an indication of at least partial realization of the objectives they embody. Moreover, the policies and procedures are safeguarded by provisions for their enforcement in the statements themselves.—*A. E. Weatherbee.*

47. Golden, Clinton S. **Labor's point of view.** *Personnel J.* 18 (3) Sept. 1939: 82-91.—Although in the beginnings of the iron and steel industry in America employers dealt with their workmen as a group, the policy changed to "We oppose organized labor and will deal only with our employees as individuals." Years of warfare and servitude of labor followed. In 1937, however, a new cycle of industrial relations started; three-fourths of the industry recognized the right of collective bargaining. Even so, some foremen and executives are having difficulty in changing their habits of thinking to fit the new conditions. If industrial peace is to continue, foremen must accept democratization and must cooperate wholeheartedly with the unions. Opposition to unionism results in adventurous, belligerent union leadership; cooperation results in cooperative, responsible leadership. The Steel Workers Organizing Committee trains its leaders in cooperation, in negotiation. Moreover, it has been holding meetings with foremen and union officers to discuss problems of seniority, discipline, production efficiency, etc. When management completely accepts the union, on a closed shop basis, it will then be possible to pursue a fully constructive program.—*Milton Hall.*

48. Schultz, Richard S., and Lynaugh, Mathias B. **Cooperation of men, management and psychologists in industrial relations.** *J. of Applied Psych.* 23 (6) Dec. 1939: 733-740.—In the last three decades the scope of industrial psychology and its applications to industrial relations have been considerably extended. However, the problems of industrial relations will be solved only with the cooperative efforts of men, management and psychologists. An excellent illustration of the function of the psychologist is given in a program undertaken in a coke plant, which had less than five hundred employees. The problem was to aid the personnel in an understanding of their various relationships to the organization, and to develop mutually desirable work standards, which would be objective, fair, and based upon sound scientific principles of human relations. Through the cooperation of the men in the plant and mutually interested associations, accurate job analyses were obtained, which material was compiled in the form of a special manual of job duties, and facilitated the development of other personnel procedures. Because the employees actively participated in preparing job

descriptions, each man felt a responsibility for the exactness of this work. With such accurate descriptions, a special type of qualifying examination was constructed, and the employees collaborated in its development. Employees and supervisors entered into the discussion, and offered helpful suggestions, aided in the construction of sample questions, and the final examination was submitted to them for comment and review. The current problem of more correctly describing and evaluating jobs, and their relative worth in terms of points and wages has also aroused the interest and attention of men, management, psychologists, and engineers. Thought and discussion has centered around the kinds of skill, endurance, knowledge, and experience essential for the work in question. At present, ample theory is available, but forthcoming contributions by the psychologist are needed in the application of available statistical methods and in the form of extensive research on scaling. The task for men and management, in conjunction with psychologists, is to make greater use of practical experiments in studying industrial relations problems.—*Henry F. Hubbard.*

49. Smith, Elliott Dunlap. **Efficiency and labor management.** *Personnel* 16 (2) Nov. 1939: 51-61.—Labor saving, which is compounded of changes in processes, materials, equipment, methods, and organization, is in a real sense a personnel problem. It is a part of the personnel manager's job to understand the *human* problems of labor saving and to see that they are recognized and adequately dealt with by those who have charge of the development of efficiency. Personnel problems do not require immediate action in order to avoid immediate consequences and often, therefore, they fail to get adequate attention unless this is made the special responsibility of a personnel officer. Since personnel men are specialists, it is important that they exercise their influence over working conditions. The most effective means of doing this seems to lie in emphasizing the responsibility of the operating executives for the entire conduct of their departments; in making personnel executives frankly advisory in all matters which occur on the working floor, and in using as personnel executives men of high enough rank in the company to give their advice substantial weight. Personnel executives must know all the facts with regard to labor saving installations.

The requirements which management *makes of* labor must be balanced by the conditions which management *provides for* labor. Labor, as well as management, has tended to overlook the inevitability of this balance. Because records, stop watches, time studies, and other refinements have all too often been employed as a means of installing enlarged work assignments without adequate re-

gard for labor's interest, labor has tended to oppose the use of these refinements. The fault is not in the techniques but in the manner of their use. Labor has as much to gain from the proper use of technological measures as has management. But labor is even more interested than is management in seeing that objective managerial techniques are used for the purpose of safeguarding labor welfare—not as refinements in labor driving. It is the major function of the personnel executive to see that this is done during an efficiency campaign, for if he is to be on the administrative level he must see that labor saving is adapted to the needs of labor relations under the exceptional strains which labor saving sets up.—*Dick Carlson.*

[See also abstracts 53, 54]

SEPARATIONS AND RETIREMENT

50. Unsigned. *Dismissals procedure in the department of welfare in New York City.* *Pub. Personnel Q.* 1 (1) Dec. 1939, Jan., Feb. 1940: 34-35.—Hearings for dismissed employees of the Department of Welfare is set up under an executive order issued by the Commissioner of Welfare. Dismissed employees, if they claim discrimination because of race, creed, or union activity, are given three days after receiving written charges to apply for a hearing before a director of staff relations. Appeals from this hearing must be made within one week. The appeals board, composed of distinguished citizens who donate their services must render recommendation to the Commissioner of Welfare within thirty days. In all instances such recommendations have been accepted. The procedure has resulted in a decrease in the number of dismissals and a decrease in the number of employees' requests for hearings. Employee morale has improved.—*Ross Pollock.*

GENERAL

51. Benson, George C. S. *Federal-state personnel relations.* *Annals* 207 Jan. 1940: 38-43.—The problems of federalism have begun to touch personnel, and the objectives and drawbacks of a federal system should be kept in mind in trying to work out satisfactory national-state personnel relations. The national government, in offering grants-in-aid to the states, has pursued three policies. In some cases, e. g., highways, it has merely tried to measure the end-product and performance on the job, leaving recruitment and personnel methods to the states. In other instances, the national government has interfered occasionally with state personnel actions by withholding approval of certain appointments of state employees. Finally, the national government has at times required the states to meet minimum qualifications as to education and experience or to establish merit systems. All of these methods have their dangers. It would be particularly unde-

sirable for the national government to set hard and fast requirements as to education and experience without realizing that these may in themselves tend to prevent the selection of competent personnel and may make for narrow professionalism. The requirement of a merit system may work well, and joint national-state civil service examinations may have advantages. The problem needs much study. But our actions must in all events be related to the fundamental principles of our federal system. The values of prevention of concentration of power, experimentation, adaptation to local conditions, and decentralization of administration must be weighed against the disadvantages of local poverty, provincialism, and incompetence.—*John Thurston.*

52. Cook, Stuart W. *The judgment of intelligence from photographs.* *J. of Abnormal and Social Psych.* 34 (8) July, 1939: 384-389.—This paper reports an investigation of the success with which individuals of considerable experience in sizing up strangers in a brief period, can estimate intelligence from photographs. These individuals were asked to judge the intelligence of a large sample of 150 subjects on the hypothesis that the wide discrepancies in previous studies, both between individuals in the same study and between the averages of different studies, have been due to their use of a small sample. All judges estimated intelligence with an approximately equal degree of inaccuracy, the coefficients of correlation having a mean of .05. The pooled judgment of the judges has an equally low correlation with intelligence, the coefficient being .07. The judges were no more accurate in estimating extremes of intelligence than they were in estimating average or near-average levels. Inter-correlations among the judges indicated a very slight degree of agreement, the coefficients having a mean of .28. Factors believed to be common to the ten photographs estimated to be of highest intelligence and missing from those estimated to be of lowest intelligence are: (1) symmetry and regularity of features, (2) pleasantness of expression, and (3) neatness of appearance.—*Thelma Hunt.*

53. Cottrell, Fred W. *The seniority curse.* *Personnel J.* 18 (5) Nov. 1939: 177-183.—There are many unsatisfactory and unwholesome conditions among the million men in the railroad industry. These conditions impair efficiency, constitute an economic waste, and create a dangerous, unsettled human situation which helps spread unrest. Few railroad men can be said to be well adjusted to their surroundings, and few have the feeling that life has enriched them with what they need to make existence satisfying. This is true despite the fact that superficially it would seem that railroad men, protected by their unions, are very much satisfied with themselves and their work. Such expressions as, "Boy, keep away from the railroad," represent

real dissatisfaction, not superficial verbiage. It is hard for us to realize that most railroaders are afraid of promotion, and that the young man, at first eager to learn and self-confident, becomes, as time goes on, less confident and often thoroughly disillusioned, disgusted, and dissatisfied. The causes of this dissatisfaction lie in the nature of the railroad hierarchy itself. The "Big Four"—engineers, firemen, conductors, and trainmen—are organized into the strongest unions, and they regard themselves as the "aristocrats of labor" in America. Next in line in importance to them come machinists, boilermakers, other shop men, bridge and building, telegraph, signal and telephone workers, section men, and finally the clerks.

Unquestionably, the rivalry between the aristocrats and their inferiors will delay rehabilitation of the roads. As their major protective device, the railway trainmen work under strict seniority rules set up to protect them against discrimination and favoritism of the company, to protect one craft against another, and to protect one worker against another. The bulk of firemen and brakemen are recruited locally and tend to accumulate seniority on the division on which they "broke in." Seniority for train and enginemen is usually confined to a single division and transfer is extremely costly. As a student, a fireman or brakeman is assigned the least desirable runs and is constantly on the move. The resulting mobility of early years is hardly a promising foundation for marital fidelity or conventionality. Usually promotion runs from freight fireman to passenger fireman, freight engineer to passenger engineer, or similarly for the brakeman and conductor. Hardly has a man earned a good permanent run before he is again "geographically demoted." A man in the train service may normally expect at least a dozen such changes in location of his home terminal, and the number during transitory times might reach fifty "bumps." This mobility accentuates the difficulties of marital adjustment, housing, and entering into community life and civic affairs. The entire community runs on a time schedule which the railroader cannot follow. Yet the very situations that make family life difficult also serve to increase the significance of the family in the life of the railroader. In many cases, it is the only group in which he functions.—A. E. Weatherbee.

54. Dauterich, R. Douglas. **Seniority plans.** *Personnel J.* 18 (3) Sept. 1939: 114-120.—The most frequent application of the seniority principle today has to do with a preferential treatment of employees in connection with lay-off, rehire, and promotion, based upon their relative length of service, and, to a minor extent, upon other factors such as merit, ability, family status, physical fitness, and place of residence. The employer first recog-

nized and applied this seniority principle by encouraging continued employment. This reduced labor turnover, utilized employees' increased abilities, reduced training costs, and increased workers' loyalties. Then Labor advocated seniority with two major objectives: the protection of older workers and the protection of all workers against discriminatory treatment by supervisors. In formulating a seniority plan a number of points must usually be given consideration. Seniority has been called "a breeding ground of mediocrity." This need not be true and will not be true, unless the employee is allowed to get a distorted idea of the protection afforded him by his seniority rights. He must be made to realize that, although he may insure his home against loss by fire, he dare not set fire to that home.—A. E. Weatherbee.

55. Frank, Lawrence K. **Dilemma of leadership.** *Psychiatry* 2 (3) Aug. 1939: 343-361.—The professed rule of the majority in democratic societies depends upon someone to tell the majority what they should desire and how to get it. Today, when the issue of democracy versus dictatorship is so acute, serious students of personality and culture should examine the question of leadership in political life, in scientific and professional life, and in academic educational programs. There are two types of leadership. The first is a dynamic emotional relationship in which the leader uses his followers ruthlessly to satisfy his own personality needs and in which the followers also find fulfillment of their personality needs in the security of a firm and coercive program in which they can, by obedience and submission, find their place in life. Such leadership is destructive and dangerous and can be combatted only by a system of emotional education—which may itself in turn be highly dangerous. Another type of leader, and one for which every field of human activity expresses a desire, is the creative leader who does not need to exploit others but who is impelled by a conviction of unique creativity that he must express in discovery and achievement beyond the contemporary boundaries. The appeal of the creative leader is not an emotional one and hence not as potent as that of the destructive leader, and although the sciences and professions cry out for such leaders, they resist them when they come. This may be attributed to the fact that the very qualities which make for professional competence are the ones which are obstructive to professional improvement by resistance to new ideas, new discoveries, and new techniques. This is apparently the reason so many advances come from outside the professions, from amateurs, who, with perhaps inferior ability and little or no training, nevertheless see possibilities, explore new leads and contrive new techniques. But because these outsiders lack professional prestige and stand-

ing their contributions are under a double handicap, of novelty and of unprofessional origin. The tendency of professional workers to regard their own knowledge and techniques as final truths presents serious obstacles to the advancement of science and professional arts because it hampers the full free flow of inquiry and experimentation and especially frustrates the creative original minds.—*Henry F. Hubbard.*

56. Jackson, Robert H. **The administrative process.** *J. of Social Philosophy* 5 (2) Jan. 1940: 143-149.—The theory of the relationship of the judicial and administrative branches of government which underlies Dean James M. Landis' discussion, *The Administrative Process*, is that expressed by Mr. Justice Stone in *United States v Morgan*: "Court and agency are the means adopted to attain the prescribed end, and, so far as their duties are defined by the words of the statute, those words should be construed so as to attain that end through coordinated action." Eventually there will come the type of judicial-administrative cooperation which Landis and Stone anticipate, but "the administrative agency has a long road to travel before its judgments will be given the faith and credit that are generally accorded to those of judges."

The legal profession has been particularly hostile to the administrative tribunal. Lawyers find practice in the regular courts much more congenial than in the administrative tribunals, where a "layman may actually understand what one of these . . . is doing." Lawyerly hostility to administrative tribunals antedates the New Deal, although the creation since 1932 of numerous agencies of this kind has tended to merge professional and political antipathy. The fairness of the methods of administrative agencies is often attacked by other persons whose real quarrel is with the philosophy of the basic acts being administered. Administrative agencies, which frequently are organized and staffed in haste to deal with controversial issues of public policy, make mistakes, but the record of the courts is not free from errors. "The necessity for administrative tribunals is too apparent to permit the enemies of effective government to destroy them. On the other hand, the need for the process to be committed to hands that are dispassionate and disciplined is too obvious to allow any widespread or long-continued abuses of their position."—*Hiram M. Stout.*

57. Lawres, Irving A. J. **Civil service and state bank supervision.** *Good Government* 56 (6) Nov.-Dec. 1939: 61-64.—Since effective bank supervision is dependent primarily upon competent personnel, the National Association of Supervisors of State Banks has given much of its attention to the extension and improvement of the selection of supervisory staffs through competitive examinations. The

increased complexity of banking and the additional powers of bank supervisors serves to stress the need for objective recruiting and properly building a staff. Some governmental units have well established civil service methods for recruiting bank supervisory personnel. In New York, for example, 98 per cent of the state banking department employees are under civil service. Competition has provided a staff of able examiners. In other jurisdictions where no merit system exists, state bank departments might profitably adopt their own competitive selection system without waiting for the adoption of a general civil service law. The Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation is the most recent bank supervisory agent to adopt civil service. The Corporation first gave an examination on an experimental basis in its Chicago and Richmond districts. The results were definitely encouraging and the United States Civil Service Commission subsequently announced a nationwide examination for FDIC junior examiners. The qualifications gave due consideration to young men without long experience, but with the promise of growth within the organization. The written examination, to be taken by 7500, will consist of one part which is technical in nature and one part designed to measure intelligence, judgment, and general background. The resulting twelve lists, one for each section of the country, will be available to state banking supervisors who desire to consult them for appointment purposes.—*William F. Howell.*

58. Litchfield, Edward H. **Michigan's experience with civil service.** *Personnel Administration* 2 (4) Dec. 1939: 1-8.—For a century Michigan wallowed contentedly in spoils politics. Two rapid changes in administration brought such a scramble for jobs and turnover that in 1935 the governor appointed an unusually competent Civil Service Study Commission which recommended the establishment of a state civil service system. Strong support by the public and by two governors resulted in the creation of such a system by the legislature in 1937, providing for a lay commission and a personnel director to administer the act. The first personnel director set out to put the entire program into effect within a few months, this task involving the difficult problems of classifying the seventeen thousand positions in the state service, setting up a compensation plan adjusted to prevailing wage rates in Michigan without too great inequity to incumbents, constructing and administering qualifying examinations for all incumbents, and constructing, advertising and administering open competitive examinations for all vacancies and new positions. These activities were carried on almost simultaneously, with the result that most of this program was completed within six months after the effective date of the Act, which was January 1, 1938. The examina-

tions on the whole were well planned and criticism of them was no heavier than would be expected. The organizational structure of the civil service department was unusual, in that it provided for two technical divisions for the functions of classification and recruitment, and a third division of administration to take care of all administrative and clerical activities of the agency such as finances, payroll auditing, and certification.

Some difficulties in carrying out the program resulted from the refusal of the personnel staff to compromise with the operating departments on matters relating to interpretation of the Act and rules. Other difficulties soon arose on the political front. Governor Murphy, staunch supporter of the merit system, was defeated for reelection and his successor had difficulty holding a rebellious legislature in check. Governor Fitzgerald's death removed this restraint and attacks on the program resulted in a reduction of the competitive service to 9,000 positions, the destruction of the possibility of a career service in many instances through putting the better positions back under spoils, a change in the commission membership, a cut in appropriations, and a 300 per cent turnover in the position of personnel director, resulting partly from a salary reduction for the position from \$7500 to \$5000. The present situation is not so favorable to an ideal merit system as in 1938, but it is far better than it was at any time prior to 1937. Michigan's merit system still ranks above average among the states which have such plans in operation.—*Richard W. Cooper.*

59. McBride, James Donald. **Colorado civil service commissioners impeached.** *Nat. Municipal Rev.* 28 (11) Nov. 1939: 786-793.—In 1939 the Colorado legislature began an investigation of the Democratic Colorado State Civil Service Commission. It subpoenaed records of a 1937 grand jury which had investigated civil service among other things, employed an accountant and attorney, and uncovered amazing evidence including changing of many grades on an examination. Within a month the committee recommended that one commissioner be impeached and another be asked to resign. The House spent five days going over evidence which indicated in a competition for Boys' Industrial School directorship that a poorly educated insurance salesman and holder of a political state job had been given higher rating on his experience than a well qualified individual—with deplorable results for the school—and that a commissioner had let one man "recopy" a test over night. Much of the friction which led to the investigation apparently arose over unwillingness of the Democratic commission to give to a Republican state treasurer the apparently customary Colorado privilege of "reorganizing" departments and making provisional

appointments. The House voted impeachment of two commissioners but the Democratic Senate acquitted the individuals by strict party votes. The Democratic senators declared that the evidence presented was of procedural irregularity, not warranting the severe penalty of impeachment. The situation brings home the fact that good government cannot be secured by form of law. Colorado's civil service has not been accepted in spirit for the thirty-two years since it was set up.—*George C. S. Benson.*

60. McDiarmid, John. **Can government be efficient in business?** *Annals* 206 Nov. 1939: 155-160.—It is frequently argued that government is inevitably inefficient. This is not true, and private enterprise is probably not markedly more efficient than government. When government enterprises are inefficient, there may be several causes. Improper organization may be one. The government department or bureau may be rigid and unprogressive. There may be political interference in management by the legislature or the executive. Inferior men may be employed, because of low salaries or spoils. Or the financial structure may be unsuitable, requiring legislative appropriation and compliance with the rigid rules applying to government expenditure. Unforeseen contingencies may be embarrassing or fatal if the enterprise is dependent upon appropriations. Of these dangers, political control and rigidity of management and finance are the greatest. Good personnel can be obtained. The public corporation as a form of organization for the administration of government-owned businesses offers the greatest promise. Having a board of directors and a general manager and possessing financial autonomy and managerial freedom, it tends to escape political interference. The management may be given broad discretion within general lines of policy. Funds may be borrowed on the corporation's own assets and reserves may be accumulated. If the corporation has to pay its own way, that fact in itself will be an incentive to good management. Flexibility in management will tend to make for vigor and progressiveness. "The best safeguard, obviously, is the selection of competent and conscientious public servants as directors."—*John Thurston.*

61. Melton, Presley W. **Administration in a federal government bureau.** *Am. Political Science Rev.* 33 (5) Oct. 1939: 835-840.—The executive officer of a bureau "is responsible for keeping the internal machinery of the bureau operating smoothly. . . ." His title may be "business manager" or "assistant to the bureau chief" or "chief of the operating division." Some executive officers are "closely associated with objectives and programs" and some are buried in routine. While the bureau chief generally has had long experience in the technical

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aspects of the bureau's work, the executive officer is likely to have had his experience in the business end: in fiscal matters, in personnel, in purchasing and property, or in other service or auxiliary activities. He must be thoroughly familiar with the rules and regulations of the Civil Service Commission, the Comptroller General, the Procurement Division of the Treasury, and similar agencies. Most of the present executive officers in the national government were not college trained, although many acquired a college education after entrance. Many have worked their way up from clerical tasks. There are some dangers in the position: a tendency "to reach out for more and more personal authority, piling up red tape and making difficult the work of the operating officials. . . . The really competent executive officers in government, as in industry, are those who keep in mind constantly the objectives for which their bureaus were set up and co-operate with bureau chiefs in constantly reviewing and revising the administrative machinery whose purpose is helping achieve those objectives."—John Thurston.

62. Nisot, Marie-Therese. **The protection of professional titles: I.** *Int. Labour Rev.* 61 (1) Jan. 1940: 30-46.—The members of many of the professions have been obliged on account of the difficult times through which they have been passing in recent years to seek protection against the competition of amateurs and outsiders. This demand is now one of the important points in the program of various organizations of professional workers who now are the chief representatives of the so-called middle class. These efforts have been directed mainly toward the protection of their designation, that is to say the outward invisible sign of their qualifications. The end has been to decrease competition and to protect the scientific or professional prestige of the group. There are also considerations of public interest in favor of regulating the use of professional titles particularly if that regulation is accompanied by certain guarantees which can be given by the State.

The exact meaning and scope of the concept of a professional title depend upon the particular laws or regulations on the subject, although they are generally recognized as being "appellations conferred on the holder by the state or designating a certain recognized status": (1) academic or university degree, (2) titles attached to official positions, (3) honorary titles, (4) professional membership titles. Types 1 and 4, which generally involve the exercise of a profession for which a code of rules exist, are included in this study. Within these groups the following titles are selected for consideration: (1) engineer, (2) architect, (3) chartered accountant, (4) veterinary surgeon, (5) journalist, (6) registered artist, and certain other titles. These

are the titles most widely protected although striking exceptions are to be found in the United States where California, New York, Pennsylvania, and a few other states have issued regulations protecting the designation of chiropodist, perfumer, barber, and embalmer. The titles of lawyers and doctors are practically universally protected and do not raise any problem in most countries.

Present difficulties in international relations have made it impossible to obtain definite information as to present regulations in certain countries. The article will conclude with an analysis of international aspects of a problem because national action cannot be completely effective unless it is supplemented by international action. As a general rule reforms affecting any given economic group must be adopted by the great majority of States if they are to be fully operative and indeed not actually harmful.—Elmer B. Staats.

63. Sherman, Roy V. **Akron's new merit system: case history.** *Nat. Municipal Rev.* 28 (10) Oct. 1939: 712-717.—In November, 1937, the Akron charter was amended to strengthen the merit system through requiring the mayor's appointment of commissioners to be from a list of three nominated by the president of the municipal university, the superintendent of schools, and the presiding judge of the Common Pleas Court. The new charter also provides that commission members shall not hold or run for political office. In January, 1938, the nominating committee nominated among others the retiring commissioner who had actively participated in the campaign for the successful candidate for mayor. The commissioner was reappointed. As personnel director in accordance with the new charter provision, the commission chose Charles F. Bassett, personnel director of Flint. His staff included a junior examiner and clerk—a budget of \$7.00 per employee or \$9,800 in 1938.

A court case was tried to determine if the university staff was covered but both Common Pleas and District Appeals Courts declared that it was not. It was also decided that municipal court and health department employees were not under civil service. New classification of positions into six services has been accepted by the commission. The classes tend to have fairly high education requirements. Employees who had served less than three years were given examinations. Thirty-six per cent lost their positions but 44 per cent of these were reduced. One-third of the 59 vacated positions were left vacant, reducing the payroll by \$29,800. There has been a long controversy between the Civil Service Commission and the Council over acceptance of the position classification. Probst ratings have been introduced.—George C. S. Benson.

64. Stead, William H. **Public personnel work.** *Vocational Trends* 2 (7) Sept. 1939: 14-15.—The

United States Employment Service and the affiliated state employment services cooperate in finding jobs for workers and workers for jobs. The U.S.E.S. acts as a research bureau, advisor, regulator, and financial backer to the state organizations but does no placement work itself. This is a function of the state employment services which receive cash aids equal to the amount appropriated by the state. There are 15,000 receptionists, interviewers, field visitors, clerks, stenographers, counsellors, statistical clerks and statisticians. Of these, 7,000 are interviewers. Interviewers are responsible for the registering of applicants, estimating their qualifications, indicating the type or types of work for which applicants are best qualified, receiving and filling orders for workers by matching the qualifications of applicants with the needs of the jobs, following up placements made to determine their adequacy, and visiting employers to inform them of the employment service and to ascertain their probable employment needs. Interviewers are usually required to have a high school education and three years of experience in work providing a familiarity with employment problems, or be college graduates with one year of such experience. An interviewer may be of either sex and should be alert, moderate, pleasant, and nice-appearing with few extreme traits. Jobs in the state services are filled on a merit basis, either through state civil service or the U.S.E.S. merit system which, in either case, involves public announcement of examinations, written examinations, and certification from resulting eligible lists. Interviewers usually earn around \$30 a week to start, those with important supervisory responsibilities receiving up to \$45 or \$50 a week. There are, of course, higher paid positions within the service and many interviewers hope to secure positions as employment managers and personnel managers in private companies. The U.S.E.S. is publishing a dictionary which will describe 18,000 of the 25,000 occupations listed in the 1930 census.

—Edgar F. Van Buskirk, Jr.

65. Stout, Hiram M. Recent developments in public personnel administration. *Am. Political Science Rev.* 33 (5) Oct. 1939: 826-835.—". . . the merit system has made more gains in the last three years than at any previous time since the passage of the Pendleton Act by Congress in 1883." Since the beginning of 1937, nine states, three counties, and over eighty cities have adopted merit systems. Seventeen states now have state-wide civil service laws, while 170 counties and 746 cities have civil service systems. There is a distinct tendency toward the establishment of personnel agencies in which administrative and technical duties are vested in a single administrator, while the civil service commission is restricted to quasi-legislative and quasi-judicial functions. Co-operation between personnel

agencies and administration of local civil service activities by state agencies is increasing. More and more attention is being paid to positive programs for improvement of employment, including classification and salary standardization plans, promotion and transfer systems, employee welfare, in-service training, and so on. Mechanical equipment, such as test scoring machines, phonographs, and punch card equipment, is being introduced. In the national government, the President extended the competitive service nearly as far as was legally possible, required the appointment of a personnel director in each department, established the Council of Personnel Administration, and appointed the Reed Committee on the Improvement of Civil Service, with particular reference to the higher administrative and professional positions. Congress passed acts to put postmasters under civil service, to prohibit political activity by national employees (the Hatch Act), and to make national funds available to public bodies for in-service training programs (the George-Deen Act).—John Thurston.

66. Young, Edgar B. A nation-wide merit system for the employment service. *Am. Labor Leg. Rev.* 29 (3) Sept. 1939: 127-131.—At the outset of the new nation-wide system of public employment offices envisaged by the Wagner-Peyser Act of June 1933, it was recognized that pivotal to the success of the program was the staffing of local public employment offices with personnel who were not only competent to do the job but also who were completely impartial and free from political control. Inasmuch as a non-political staff was recognized to be a prerequisite for full employer cooperation, the United States Employment Service established a merit system in the forty state services not already operating under civil service rules and regulations. In many states there was little or no concept of civil service procedure. There were few employees who had experience either in employment service work or in training for this occupation.

During the five-year period to 1939 the United States Employment Service held examinations once in fourteen states, twice in sixteen states and three times in nine states. From a total of 163,933 applications written tests were administered to 67,100 and personal interviews were held for 37,379 candidates. A total of 32,264 individuals were placed on registers as being qualified for appointments. More than 15,000 permanent employees of state employment services have been appointed under state civil service or merit system.

Every effort was made to make these examinations practical in nature. Realizing the inadequacy of complete reliance on written tests, oral interviewing techniques were developed as a supplement to the written test. Oral interviewing boards consisting of three persons sought to make an appraisal

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of the candidate's personality. A probationary period was considered to be an integral part of the examining process. Equally important, the principles set forth in *Personnel Standards of the United States Employment Service* provided for tenure of office, definite channels of promotion, dismissals only for cause, and for a definite appeals procedure.

This merit system program has been generally considered to have demonstrated the value of civil service procedure in staffing the state employment service, a fact which becomes even more significant in view of the rapidly expanding federal-state program of social legislation. Having fostered an increased awareness of the civil service procedure in the states, the United States Employment Service in 1939 amended its rules to provide that a state which wishes to set up its own merit system applicable to personnel of the state employment service may do so provided its plan is approved by the federal agency.

There is an increasing awareness of the professional nature of employment service work among personnel of local employment offices. Within the flexible pattern of the Wagner-Peyser Act the United States has been able to bring our employment service within a short period of six years to a par with that of any other nation. The merit system has contributed to this development.—*Elmer B. Staats.*

67. Unsigned **Connecticut merit system weathers first crucial storm.** *Merit Man* 2 (6) Nov. 1939: 129, 142.—The change in the administration of Connecticut's state government raised questions in the minds of state employees and citizens in general

as to what would happen to Connecticut's new merit system. During the 1939 session of the Connecticut legislature some sixty bills, both good and bad, affecting the merit system were introduced. Because of a vigilant press and an alert citizenry, not a single harmful bill was passed, but several bills effecting improvements in the system were successful. One of these successful bills was an amendment substituting a five-man personnel advisory committee, which gives employee representation and specific representation to institution heads, for the impractical ten-man committee which consisted of department heads. An advisory committee composed wholly of partisans affected by the operation of the law is novel and has yet to be proven. Another amendment provides a method of bringing court action for violation of the law. A third amendment exempting all teaching positions from the classified service improves the former condition in which some teaching positions were included and others were exempt. Final action on another bill prohibiting members of the General Assembly from accepting administrative positions in the state government was deferred until the 1941 session by its passage by the lower house in the form of a constitutional amendment. At the same time the state law was progressing through this uncertain period, the major cities seeking merit system legislation met with complete disaster at the hands of the cities and boroughs committee. Connecticut, because of the courage of a good governor and the support of its citizens has not only weathered the first severe test of its merit system but has actually made progress.—*R. D. Stover.*

THE Thirty-Second Annual Meeting of the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada will be held at the Hotel Cleveland in Cleveland, Ohio, on September 30, and October 1, 2, 3, and 4, 1940.

THE 1940 Annual Meeting of the Central Regional Conference will be held at 1313 East 60th Street in Chicago, Illinois, on May 15, 16, and 17.

THE 1940 Annual Meeting of the Western Regional Conference will be held in Portland, Oregon, on June 24, 25, and 26.

THE 1940 Annual Meeting of the Eastern Regional Conference will be held in New York City on June 26, 27, 28, and 29.

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